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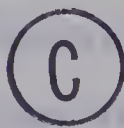




THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF AUTHORITARIANISM,  
BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION, AND PERCEPTIONS  
OF POSITIONAL AUTHORITY IN  
SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONS

by



HENRY NORMAN ANDERSON

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled, "An Empirical Study of Authoritarianism, Bureaucratic Role Orientation, and Perceptions of Positional Authority in School Organizations", submitted by Henry Norman Anderson in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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## ABSTRACT

This study investigated a number of posited relationships between F Scale measures of authoritarianism among various categories of teachers and principals and their orientations toward a role in a school organization structured on a variant of the Weberian model of bureaucracy, as measured by Corwin's Bureaucratic Employee Role Orientation Scale. As an empirical test of association between authoritarian personality dimensions, role orientations, and pre-dispositions toward overt behavior, an exploratory portion of the study investigated relationships between authoritarianism and BRO scores and teacher perceptions of legitimacy and anticipated compliance in six hypothetical conflict situations in which the hierarchical positional authority was imposed on classroom teachers. The sample included 258 males, 455 females, and (with the inclusion of a sub-sample) 78 principals in 41 schools drawn from 35 school systems in counties, school divisions, and small urban school districts in Alberta.

Principals were found to have significantly lower mean authoritarianism scores than did male teachers orientated towards teaching as a career, and not higher means as predicted on the basis of the formulation of Presthus. There was directional evidence that the education level of the respondents may have produced an inverse effect on scale scores.

Principals had significantly higher mean BRO scores than did administration-oriented males, but there were no overall significant differences on this variable between principals and teaching-oriented males. There were no overall significant differences between mean BRO



scores among either male or female teachers categorized by education level, but there were directional indications that extremes in difference in education level had an inverse relationship to total scores. Principals with advanced (graduate level) education had significantly lower mean BRO scores than did principals with moderate (bachelor's degree or less) education. Female teachers had significantly higher mean BRO scores than did males on each dimension of the scale.

A predicted positive functional relationship between degree of authoritarianism and degree of bureaucratic role orientation was confirmed at a high level of confidence. The prediction of higher mean BRO scores for principals, males, and females categorized as "high" as contrasted to those categorized as "low" in authoritarianism was also confirmed. Both male and female teachers reporting general career satisfaction with teaching had significantly higher mean BRO scores than did those reporting themselves dissatisfied with their choice of career.

There was only slight support for the predicted positive relationship between level of authoritarianism among respondents and their perceptions of legitimacy and anticipated compliance with positional authority in the hypothetical conflict incidents examined. There was substantial support for the predicted positive relationship between level of bureaucratic role orientation and perceptions of legitimacy and anticipated compliance in the role-taking situations described in the hypothetical conflict incidents.



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## CHAPTER I

### AN OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

#### INTRODUCTION

The pervasiveness of organizational pressures on the individual is well documented. An organization, like any other social system, may be viewed as an instrument of socialization. Its rewards, its negative sanctions, its desired attitudes and ideals, and its desired standards of conduct impinge upon its members throughout their working day and extend into their private lives. Individuals are recruited to an organization for a variety of reasons, but during their tenure they are exposed to mechanisms of control and influence with which they must reach an accommodation.

A school can be viewed as a social system of related parts. As a formal organization, it pursues explicit objectives or goals, and its efforts or processes are manifestly co-ordinated. According to Scott, two of the major parts of any system are: (a) the members and their personalities, and (b) the formal organization. One of the major processes is that of decision-making, by which members decide on the nature and degree of their participation in the formal organization. Individual decisions to participate in the organization reflect on such issues as the relationship between organizational rewards and the demands made by the organization, and such individual variables as role-expectations and motivations (9, pp. 19-22). These factors represent the





relationship between the individual and the organization, or, in other terms, the personality and the social system. Argyris suggests that the fusion of these two elements represents the basic problem of all organizations (1, p. 2). The most powerful and pervasive element in any organization and that of central concern in this study is the authority structure.

The psychoanalytic theory of personality emphasizes the impact of early socialization on the individual as a contributing factor to the structure of adult personality. The crucial mechanisms of identification with authority figures, and repression by authority figures during formative years are, according to this theory, basically responsible for the conceptions of authority an individual carries with him to later interpersonal relationships. Such conceptions are important in determining the type of accommodation an individual will tend to develop within the authority system of the organization to which he is recruited.

#### THE PROBLEM

Like members of any other organizations, teachers in the public school system must adjust to institutional pressures and expectations. How do teachers see themselves within their occupational group? By provincial statute, teachers are designated as "professionals"; by their organizational positions, they are "employees" of a school system. Important differences in the normative standards which apply to the designation of *professional* and of *employee* can be identified. The distinction between the two terms can be most clearly presented by positing two "ideal"



sets of standards. On the one hand, an employee must accept the determination and direction of his activities by others; the professional sees himself as a specialized, self-directed individual. A crucial distinction between professional and employee conceptions of a role resides in the basis of the authority by which behavior is to be regulated. The professional acknowledges authority based on specialized knowledge and competence—he defers to superior knowledge or the more convincing argument; the employee must defer to superior rank. The professional views his special knowledge as an individual property which cannot be transferred by decree; the employee is subject to a power hierarchy of administration which controls and co-ordinates his activities. Certain role-strains can be anticipated among any group which can be designated as "professional-employee", *i.e.*, individuals with specialized technical competence who are required to accept the decision-making and supervision of generalist administrators.

The form of organization in which teachers work, therefore, will be an important factor in determining whether they feel supported by the work unit, or frustrated by its structure. Such reactions are related to the attitudes and values held by the individual, and therefore any discussion of the organizational behavior of teachers must take into account not only the structure of the organization, but also role-relevant personality dimensions as well.

#### Statement of the Problem

The basic problem to which this study was addressed was





an examination of the relationship between certain "authoritarian" orientations of principals and teachers and their orientations towards particular roles as members of school organizations. The study also sought to determine relationships between these basic orientations and two other major variables: (a) the career orientations of teachers within the structure of public education in Alberta, and (b) the acceptance or legitimation by teachers of the positional authority of the principal. This study was generally concerned with that form of power which is legitimated or "socially sanctioned" as authority, and specifically concerned with the exercise of power and authority within school organizations.

#### The Research Problem

The research problem involved a study of authoritarian personality variables of principals and teachers, together with their role orientations towards their positions in the school system. Data were gathered from a representative sample of principals and teachers in 41 schools in 35 public school systems in the province of Alberta. Various analyses were carried out to determine relationships involving the major variables of "authoritarianism" and "bureaucratic-employee orientation" among various categories of personnel in the teaching force. Both of these variables were related to anticipated compliance in hypothetical conflict situations in which the principal made use of this positional authority as head of the school.





### The Significance of the Problem

An increasing proportion of public education in Alberta is conducted in schools of growing size and complexity. Provincial trends indicate a rapidly increasing enrolment of pupils in the public schools at every grade level, and there is a corresponding growth in the size of the teaching force. There is a countering trend in the number of schools in operation. Although the number of teachers in service has tripled in the past twenty years, the number of operating schools has decreased by more than two-thirds in the same period. In 1945 the mean number of teachers per school in Alberta was 1.8; in 1965 the comparable figure was 14.1 teachers (5). If the analysis is limited to secondary schools, the trend towards larger organizations is even more striking. By 1964, some forty per cent of the high school teachers in Alberta were members of staffs having 46 teachers or more (3, p. 19). The role of the teacher must be viewed to an increasing extent as that of a member of a complex organization.

Irrespective of the type of organization involved, the basic question which the administrator must face is simply stated: In what ways should cooperative action be organized to obtain maximum *effectiveness* (achievement of organizational goals) and also maintain maximum *efficiency* (satisfaction of personal needs of organizational members)? These concepts suggested by Barnard (2, pp.55-59), call attention to the essential balance required by an administrator in the use of power vested in his office.

While power is clearly necessary in every organization



for the integration of roles and facilities, it is dysfunctional to the extent that members are alienated by the manner in which it is exercised. This study took as its first premise the statement of Presthus that "... reactions to authority constitute the most critical variable in organizational accommodation" (8, p. 140).

The appropriate organizational framework for co-ordinating the functions of teachers, and the appropriate authority system to be applied to schools, are matters of continuing importance to educational administrators. The relationships between personality type and organizational structure—either in terms of initial occupational recruitment or as a posited result of "occupational deformation"—is a source of frequent speculation in the literature. Teacher personality characteristics and classroom behaviors have been widely reported (4, pp. 506-582), but to the knowledge of this writer, no studies have been undertaken specifically to discover relationships between personality variables among teachers as they relate to their conception of their organizational roles.

#### DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The major delimitation of the study was that the sample of teacher and principal respondents was drawn from rural and small urban school systems in Alberta, and accordingly generalizations must be confined to this population. Respondents were typically drawn from schools having a staff of twenty to thirty-five teachers under a single male principal, at centers providing instruction from Grades 1 - 12.





### LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The major limitation of the study was that the instruments used tapped attitudes, orientations, and reports of preferred behaviors, and did not obtain data related to *observed behavior*. Since attitudes and orientations have no one-to-one correspondence with overt behavior, a limitation is imposed on the extent to which the findings might be generalized in behavioral terms. Implications for organizational structure and administration are limited to inferences which can be drawn from the study.

### ASSUMPTIONS

The major methodological assumption underlying the study was that the instruments used represented valid operational definitions of the concepts which are related in the theoretical framework which serves as the basis of the study. A further methodological assumption was that the sampling techniques employed yielded a sample which accurately represented the total population of teachers and principals of rural and small urban systems in Alberta, permitting valid inferences to be drawn. An additional assumption was that the respondents had adequate information to complete the questionnaires, and that their responses were valid and reliable.

### DEFINITION OF TERMS

The major concepts employed in this study are elaborated in the context of the discussion presented in the theoretical framework. The particular usage of terms most frequently cited



is set out in the glossary below:

Authoritarianism. This term refers to the personality construct which is used to describe certain patterns in the socialization of an individual towards authority. Substantively, the term embraces a cluster of attitudinal bases involving power, dominance, and submission in interpersonal relations. Operationally, the term is used to mean a numerical score derived by summing the weighted responses which a teacher or principal gives as an indication of his agreement or disagreement with certain statements of attitude or belief.

Authority. The term describes substantively a form of power that is socially or organizationally sanctioned. When used with reference to interpersonal relations, the term is distinguished from other forms of social control (such as power, persuasion, or personal influence) by two criteria: voluntary compliance with commands which are legitimated on the basis of an individual's internalized norms, and a suspension of judgment in advance of a superordinate's request.

Bureaucracy, or Bureaucratic Organization. This term denotes a system of administration constructed on the principle of standardization of procedures, hierarchically ordered centralization of decision-making, and specialization of function.

Bureaucratic Orientation, or Bureaucratic Role Orientation. This term is used operationally to refer to a teacher's conception of his role in public education as measured by Corwin's "Bureaucratic-Employee Status Orientation Scale".





Compliance. This term is used substantively to refer to behavior which is in accord with organizational expectations; operationally, the term denotes the predisposition of teachers to accept the direction of principals in matters affecting their organizational behavior.

Legitimate(d) Expectation. This term refers to an expectation which a role-encumbent feels others have a right to hold. An expectation which he does not feel others have a right to hold for him is an *illegitimate* expectation.

Legitimation. This term refers to the process by which an individual evaluates the power applied to him, or the expectations held for his role, in terms of his own expectations of how the power should be applied, or in terms of the expectations he feels should be held for his role.

Orientation. This term is employed in the sense used by Parsons (7, p. 5), and refers to the subjective process by which an individual defines, evaluates, and becomes negatively or positively cathected to social or physical objects within any situation.

Power. This term refers to the capacity of an individual or of a collectivity such as an organization to direct the behavior of others in accordance with his own intentions, or those of the organization (as enunciated by its officers), irrespective of the wishes of those who are affected. The bases of power as means for social control are coercion, economic assets, and normative values.



Role. This term refers to the sum of the expectations held for the encumbent of a position in a social system.

Role Conflict or Intra-role Conflict. This term is used in the sense employed by Gross, Mason, and McEachern to denote the perception of an individual that others hold differing expectations for him as the encumbent of a single position (6, pp. 58-9). In this study, intra-role conflict refers to incompatible expectations deriving from differing conceptions of an organizational role.

Sanction. This term is used to apply to the reciprocal of any role expectation: a reward or deprivation by an alter to an actor in response to conformity to or deviation from the expectation held by the alter for the actor's behavior.

Satisfaction. This term refers to the internal state of an individual which obtains when there is a congruence between expectations held for a role and the expectations a role encumbent feels should be held for him.

## THE ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS

Following this introductory chapter, the second chapter presents a brief review of literature relevant to the basic concept of organizational authority, with special reference to school organizations. Chapter III outlines the theoretical framework suggesting relationships among the major variables, and Chapter IV sets out the research problems and hypotheses of the study, and describes the design and instrumentation employed. Chapters V and VI are devoted to reporting and discussing the various analyses of





data and the relevant findings. Finally, Chapter VII provides a summary of the research findings, and presents implications for educational administration and for further research.





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## CHAPTER II

### A REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

#### INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents an overview of literature including both theoretical discussions and empirical evidence bearing on the study reported in this thesis. A discussion on the nature of authority, together with the related concepts of power and influence, are set out as a general background. Empirical findings relating to the effects of the use of hierarchical positional authority within school organizations are reported to serve as a point of departure for the present study.

The succeeding chapter describes the theoretical bases of the study, and includes literature which bears more precisely on the research problems and design of the present study, and on the selection of instruments to obtain data relative to the hypotheses drawn for testing.

#### THE CONCEPT OF AUTHORITY

"Authority" is a multipurpose word, conveying a number of meanings according to the context of the term. Since authority relationships are a universal component in all organized human behavior, the use of the term in many spheres is to be expected. The pervasiveness of authority stems from the social nature of man, and the *de facto* recognition in society of the ascendancy of some men over others, and the related acceptance of this ascendancy by those who are subordinated. The term is used as a technical





concept in political science, sociology, and psychology to refer to "formal power" or "legitimate influence". Since the terms "power", "authority", and "influence" all denote bases of social control, they are often used as analogous terms. Important distinctions between them can be made, however, and basic concepts can thereby be made explicit.

"Power" is the capacity for one person to direct the behavior of others in accordance with his own intentions, irrespective of the wishes of the other actors in the situation.\* The bases of power are rooted in sanctions of either a positive or negative nature. These involve the giving of, or promise of, rewards of material goods, or allocation of prestige or esteem; or the use, or threatened use, of pain, restriction, deprivation, or frustration. Organizational officers hold "power positions" in that they have access to either positive or negative sanctions which enable them to gain the compliance of their subordinates. Schermerhorn refers to compliance in terms of "asymmetrical influence relationships", with any dyad other than mutual friendship described as a power relationship (26, pp. 4-12). Power is typically classified according to the manner in which it is exercised by the power holder, *e.g.*, force, or domination, or

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\*This definition is given by Max Weber in *The Theory of Social and Economic Organization*, A. M. Henderson and Talcott Parsons, translators (Glencoe: The Free Press, 1947), p. 152; it is used in the same sense in Peter M. Blau and W. R. Scott, *Formal Organizations* (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Company, 1962), p. 27; also in Amitai Etzioni: *A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations* (Glencoe: The Free Press, 1961), p. 4.



remuneration used to gain the compliance of lower members of any organization. Etzioni points out that compliant behavior is a product not only of the power which is applied to an individual, but also of an individual's orientation to that power (11, p. XV).

The term "power" can be used to describe a potential, or a latent force, and the exercise of power can be denoted as influence. The term "influence" is also used in another sense to denote a particular category of power which serves as a basis for a large measure of social control. Influence may be communicated overtly through suggestion or persuasion, or an actor may unknowingly modify the behavior of an alter by serving as an object of emulation. Suggestion or persuasion are forms of interpersonal influence which have essentially cognitive and rational bases. Behavior induced in an individual through his liking or respect for, or attachment to the charismatic properties of another, derive from a form of influence which has an affective or emotional basis (27, p. 127).

The term "authority" is typically used to refer to some form of legitimated power. Accordingly, the basis of authority lies in the source of legitimation. Most writers, in accounting for the legitimation of power, draw on the perspectives of Weber who views authority as rooted in societal values. Much of organizational influence is legitimated *a priori* because organizational members have internalized appropriate norms from the cultural system—obedience to authority figures, acceptance of rules and restraints, and desire for success (30, pp. 324-29).





Barnard conceives of authority as "the character of a communication (order) by virtue of which it is accepted" (2, p. 163). There is no authority inherent in the communication unless it is obeyed. The character of authority lies in the "potentiality of assent" by those who receive the communication, and this potentiality resides in the *position* and the *superior ability* of the person from whom the communication emanates (2, p. 164), [italics added]. Barnard suggests that most people are disposed to grant authority when a communication comes within a personal "zone of indifference", *i.e.*, a range of what in a general way might be anticipated (2, p. 169). In other words, the subordinate suspends his judgment in advance and voluntarily consents to be governed by his superordinate. Simon adopts the same position, suggesting that authority exists when the subordinate "holds in abeyance his critical faculties" (26, p. 126). The essential point to note is that legitimation is a function of the subordinate, and not of the superior. It is the decision of the subordinate whether *authority for him* exists in a given communication. In fact, the nature of authority is such that if the legitimacy of the communication is questioned, then an individual's compliance is derived not on the basis of authority as the term is employed here, but from some form of power relationship in which positive or negative sanctions are the crucial elements.

Two criteria, then, distinguish authority from power and influence as these terms have been developed above: authority



requires willing compliance, and involves a suspension of judgment, while power does not; influence (other than charismatic) is based on rational evaluation.

### THE LEGITIMATION OF POWER

A number of writers have identified several essentially similar bases on which power will be accepted as legitimate by those who are subjected to it. Peabody suggests that legal position, professional competence, and human relations skills possessed by an individual will predispose others to grant him authority (27, p. 34). The same position is advanced by Zaleznik and Moment (31, p. 271). Breed, in examining conformity to established policy among members of the newsroom staff of a metropolitan newspaper, identified feelings of esteem for and obligations to superiors, the acceptance of the propriety of sanctions, and the mobility aspirations of members as providing the bases for their acceptance of policy (5, pp. 367-68). Simon suggests that "acceptance" rests on confidence (technical skills), social approval, sanctions, and "legitimacy", *i.e.*, "the tendency for people to do what they ought to do", and also "certain psychological differences between individuals" (27, pp. 129-133). These writers agree that legitimation is a socialization process by which the individual is taught to internalize the major values of the work group. Therefore the definition of what is legitimate is itself a product of the values and norms of the culture or group within which the individual is socialized. Power which is viewed as legitimate will not be felt as coercive, or manipulative,





but viewed as authority.

Hopkins suggests that an authoritative role is defined by a stable distribution of commanding function to one set of roles (superordinates) and complying actions to another set (subordinates), and therefore an authority system consists of sets of complex command-compliance roles. Subordinates need not view the authority system as legitimate: it will be institutionalized *if members of the corporate elite* consider it to be legitimate. An impersonal authority system then becomes an outgrowth of the rational division of labor which is essential to the efficient operation of any organization. There follows a division of status and rank, each connected to every other on an equal, subordinate, or superordinate basis (15, pp. 82-98).

Power may therefore be legitimated because of the special organizational context in which it is exercised. Communications from the hierarchy have a "potentiality of assent" because they are issued by superordinates. Acceptance here is related to *formal authority*. In this case, obedience is granted to the legally established impersonal order. Authority which derives from interpersonal relationships is granted to an individual because of some special competence, or on some kind of affectual basis. This is *functional authority*. Peabody has summarized the positions of several writers according to the bases which they suggest underlie authority (Figure 1).

The foregoing discussion has equated "legitimacy" with the "acceptance" of power, and in fact the terms are frequently





	Formal Authority		Functional Authority	
	Legitimacy	Position	Competence	Person
Weber	Legal		Rational authority; technical knowledge	Traditional authority  Charismatic authority
Urwick		Formal (granted by the organization)	Technical (implicit in special knowledge or skill)	Personal (conferred by seniority or popularity)
Simon	Authority of legitimacy - social approval	Authority of Sanctions	Authority of confidence (technical competence)	Techniques of persuasion (as distinct from authority)
Presthuss	Generalized deference to authority	Formal role or position	Technical expertise	Rapport with subordinates; ability to mediate needs

FIGURE 1

THE BASES OF AUTHORITY (23, p. 467)



used interchangeably in the literature. Presthus suggests that power is legitimated on the basis of expertise, formal position, and by "rapport"—the human relations skills possessed by the person who exercises power (24, pp. 127-132). This view is similar to those already cited. But he advances another position which is of central concern in this study. He suggests that there is a "generalized deference to authority" which can be identified as an important psychological basis for the legitimation of power (24, p. 132). This position is further developed in the succeeding chapter.

## AUTHORITY IN SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONS

### Positional Authority

The place of the teacher in the authority structure of public education is clear. Since the teacher is under contract, his legal position is easily defined. McCurdy notes that "the courts have held that a teacher . . . has a master-servant relationship with the employing school board" (19, p. 286). The teacher's principal, though professionally a colleague, is organizationally his superordinate. The formal position of the principal in Alberta is administrative head of the school, with requisite power accruing to his position. While leaving as a moot point whether authority for administration is vested in the office of the principal or in the entire staff, a former chief superintendent of schools for the province has described the principal's position this way:





The principal has a leadership responsibility to his staff. He has further responsibilities to school government at all levels. He is, in fact, the school board's agent within the schools. As such, it is his duty to put into effect the planning of that body. Similarly he is an agent of control for the provincial department. Certainly any principal would be remiss if he knowingly permitted a teacher to follow a program not approved by the Department of Education (9, p. 16).

While it is clear that principals have the legal right to apply the power vested in their offices, numerous studies can be cited to indicate that there may be some dysfunctional consequences for the school organization if such power is perceived to be applied arbitrarily. The use of the hierarchical authority vested in the principal's position has been shown to be directly related to both the effectiveness of the school organization, and the satisfaction of teachers within the school.

#### The Principal's Authority and Teacher Effectiveness

Guba and Bidwell found in a study conducted in Chicago that the rating of effectiveness which a principal gave to a teacher was largely dependent on the degree to which he perceived that the teacher carried out the expectations he held for teachers in general (13, p. 66). Such effectiveness ratings placed a premium on compliant behavior by subordinate teachers. A study by Brown has pointed up the stress induction inherent in any supervisory activity where the focus is on the subordinate's behavior relative to his superior's expectations, and has demonstrated the dysfunctional effects that such stress may have on teaching effectiveness. Brown's findings indicate that personality variables contribute differentially to a teacher's perception of the





superordinate's positional authority as ego-threatening or stress-inducing (8, pp. 253-281).

An alternative to rated effectiveness of teachers is a measurement in terms of the productivity of the students under their charge. Similarly, an index of principal effectiveness as head of the school would be a measure of the level of productivity of the school. Keeler found a significant relationship between the leader behavior of a sample of Alberta principals and the productivity of their Grade IX students on provincial examinations (17, p. 128). MacKay found a significant negative correlation between the level of hierarchical authority in the school organization as perceived by the teachers and the productivity of the Grade IX students (18, p. 168). Andrews, on the other hand, found no significant relationships between overall organizational climates—which are measures of principal-teacher interactions within the school organization—and school productivity (1, pp. 32-36).

The productivity of any school is an outcome of the overall teaching effectiveness of its entire staff. Current writings relating to instructional supervision typically refer to the need for the principal to stimulate and motivate good teaching. A recent study by Ziolkowski examined supervisory practices of principals judged by their superintendents as being either superior or inferior in their overall programs of promoting teaching effectiveness in their schools. He found highly significant differences between the two groups of twenty-four Saskatchewan



principals in each of eleven behavior spheres (32, pp. 1-4). Ziolkowski's findings indicated that the superior results were achieved by principals who relied on interpersonal *influence* rather than *direction* as a source of motivation for their staffs. Ziolkowski concluded that a school which promotes teacher growth is likely to be administered by a principal who is not perceived by his staff as a formal agent of organizational authority.\*

#### The Principal's Authority and Teaching Efficiency (Satisfaction)

Numerous studies have shown that teachers as a group express a desire for independence and autonomy within their own classrooms. But a recent study by Miklos (20, pp. 118-123) and a survey by Carbonne (10, pp. 34-37) indicate that in the event of a direct confrontation with respect to an issue, the teachers expect to defer to the hierarchical position of the principal. Becker found that his sample of teachers granted full authority to their principals in return for the autonomy that was accorded them in the classroom (3, pp. 246-49). Bridges found that teachers with a high need for autonomy (as measured by the Edwards Scale) tended to view their principals as authority figures capable of

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\*The conception of the principal's role as that of motivator and facilitator, rather than authoritarian director has been examined by several Alberta students of Educational Administration. See, for example, J. H. M. Andrews, "The Principal - A Unique Supervisor"; T. C. Byrne, "The Principal and the Administrative Process", and H. T. Coutts, "Changing Concepts and Practices in Educational Supervision", all in *The Canadian School Principal*, A. W. Reeves, J. H. M. Andrews, and Fred Enns, editors (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, Ltd., 1962).





thwarting their opportunities to achieve the desired level of independence and autonomy in their work (7, p. 8).

The desire for autonomy and independence among teachers is denied to a greater or lesser degree by the practice of hierarchical supervision. The perceived degree of restraint in the teaching situation, whether from the nature of the organizational structure, or by the imposition of hierarchical authority, becomes a factor in the level of satisfaction that teachers report in their jobs. Francouer found that perceived freedom of choice of teaching methods among a sample of teachers of the Quebec Catholic School Commission was rated as contributing much to the teaching satisfaction of the respondents, while perceived restraints in this choice had the opposite effect. Supervision and evaluation by the principal were viewed as contributing to dissatisfaction where the practice was perceived to be of little value, but contributing to satisfaction where the practice was judged to be useful (12, pp. 175 ff.). A related finding by Andrews was a significant negative correlation between "production emphasis" (perceived directive behavior) by the principal and his teachers' global rating of satisfaction with the school (1, p. 25). Similarly, MacKay found an inverse relationship between the perceived degree of hierarchical authority in the school organization and the teachers' rating of that school as a "good school" (19, p. 99).

Hohn investigated causes of teacher transfer within a large urban school system in Alberta. He concluded from his analyses that the administrative behavior of the principal was a





major cause of dissatisfaction leading to teacher transfer, ranking second only to teachers' desires to work in schools nearer their homes. Teachers seeking transfers perceived their principals as being oppressive and excessively directive in many instances, while others were dissatisfied by a perceived lack of directiveness and structure in the principal's behavior as school leader (14, p. 123). Hohn's study points up the *individual* rather than the *group* process in the acceptance of an authority relationship, and points toward studies concerned with individual reactions to institutional pressures.

Principals, having themselves been drawn from the ranks of classroom teachers, are not unaware of teacher attitudes towards supervision. Whether they are able to retain their sensitivity to these norms is another matter. Hrynyk, in a study conducted in suburban Edmonton, found that neither the teachers nor the principals considered formal classroom visits, and particularly evaluative visits, to be desirable aspects of supervision (16, p. 115). Trask found that a sample of New England principals generally preferred not to exercise the hierarchical authority vested in their offices. Accordingly, in order to meet the requirements of their own superordinates for direct visitation of teachers, they tended to adopt alternate definitions of "supervision" so that in fact they carried out very little direct evaluation or classroom visitation (28, p. 4).

Other studies suggest that principals of long experience may not remain sensitive to these autonomy norms. Morin found in



a sample of 123 Alberta principals that the more experienced (twelve or more years) were inclined to give direct advice to teachers, unlike the less experienced principals. The same experienced group perceived their roles as principals in more traditional terms of "boss" rather than "leader" of the organization (21, pp. 69-70). Bridges found that the difference between personal qualities and performance (as perceived by teachers) of two paired groups of principals in a mid-west American school system diminished with increased experience (6, pp. 19-28). Both of these studies suggest there is a de-sensitizing towards teacher norms induced by prolonged role-enactment as a principal, and that there is an inherent difficulty for principals to mediate the expectations held for them by their staffs, and by their system superordinates who require them to adopt a more directive leadership style in achieving organizational goals.

The studies cited indicate that the supervisory behavior of the principal, and particularly his use of hierarchical authority, is a crucial variable in a teacher's satisfaction with his work situation. Personality variables in the teachers affected are also related to their satisfaction with the organizational structure, and to the types of interpersonal relationships that occur between teachers and administrators. Brown's study, already cited, points out that differing personalities are differentially disposed to stress-induction in the presence of superordinates. Von Fange, using the Meyers-Briggs Type Indicator, found that male "extravert" teachers differed from "introverts" in four dimensions.





The extraverts expressed higher global satisfaction with their teaching position, with the educational policies of their schools, and with their choice of career. They also felt a lower pressure for conformity to the school organization than did introverts. Von Fange noted further that male extraverts indicated greater rapport with administrators than did introverts. There were no significant differences among the female teachers of differing personality types on any of the dimensions on which differences were found in males. Female extraverts, however, did express significantly higher levels of satisfaction with the *social* relationships in their schools than did introverts (29, pp. 138-142).

#### SUMMARY

This chapter elaborated the basic concept of authority, stressing that its essential bases lie in the legitimation of the power which is held by superordinates or superiors in a given social system. The factors which underlie the legitimation process are rooted in the cultural system through which an individual has been socialized, and include deep seated attitudes and ingrained respect for authority in general.

The place of the teacher in the authority system of school organizations was briefly surveyed. A number of generalizations were drawn: (a) there is an emerging "autonomy norm" among teachers, suggesting a desire for greater freedom from administrative control; (b) principals are typically drawn from "the ranks", and are aware of these norms, at least initially; (c) principals,





as superordinates of the system, are themselves subject to the demands of their own superiors, and must frequently mediate incompatible expectations which derive from system superordinates and from teachers as subordinates; (d) principals exercise the authority vested in their offices in different ways; and (e) teachers perceive differentially the desirability of hierarchical authority, the supervision of their work, and the application of rules and standards. There is evidence of a differential degree of acceptance of hierarchical authority by teachers, but it can be generalized that the positional authority of the principal has a demonstrable outcome in the productivity of the school, at least as measured by examinations, and in the satisfaction of the teachers with the school as a place in which to work.



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### CHAPTER III

#### THEORETICAL BASES OF THE STUDY

##### THE GENERAL THEORY OF ACTION

Parsons and Shils, with the collaboration of other social scientists, have developed a conceptual scheme which they submit as part of a frame of reference for an analytical study of human behavior. The Theory of Action represents a categorical system of interrelated elements. According to Parsons and Shils, action, or purposive behavior, does not occur independently, but as one unit in the context of a wider system of relationships. Action is viewed as a relationship between two structural parts of a system—actor and a situation composed of objects (social or non-social). Action involves a choice among alternate ways of defining any situation. The *orientation* of an actor to a situation involves the subjective processes of cognition, evaluation, cathexis, and choice among alternatives in the situation. The different bases of orientation imply that individual actors are not oriented to their situation "as a whole", but through specific modes of organization of specific drive and need components within their individual personalities. By stressing the interrelatedness of action in the personality system, the social system, and the cultural system, the Theory of Action encompasses, and seeks to integrate, the major elements of sociological theory, personality theory, and social psychology (19, pp. 1-243).





## THE SOCIAL BEHAVIOR MODEL

Getzels and Guba have adapted the system concepts of Parsons and Shils into a social behavior model appropriate for the analysis of organizational behavior. The conceptualization presented in Figure 2 posits two interacting dimensions of the social system: a normative or *nomothetic* dimension of activity, including institution, role and role-expectations, and a personal or *idiographic* dimension including the individual, personality, and need dispositions. Behavior is conceived as a function of the interaction between the institutional and personal kinds of events taking place within a social system. On the nomothetic dimension, the institution is conceived as a system of status-derived roles, which are in turn systems of role-expectations. In the context of an organization as a social system, the roles are basically the prescriptions or specifications which attend certain offices or jobs. On the idiographic dimension, the individual is viewed in terms of his personality which is made up of a system of drives and need-dispositions that govern his *unique* reactions to his environment, and to the expectations that derive from that environment (8, p. 154). In other words, the personality represents a crucial factor in the orientation of the individual toward a situation. In this study, the social situation was represented by a school organization as a collectivity of roles, and role expectations.

The social behavior model is applicable irrespective of the size or level of the unit under consideration. The relation-



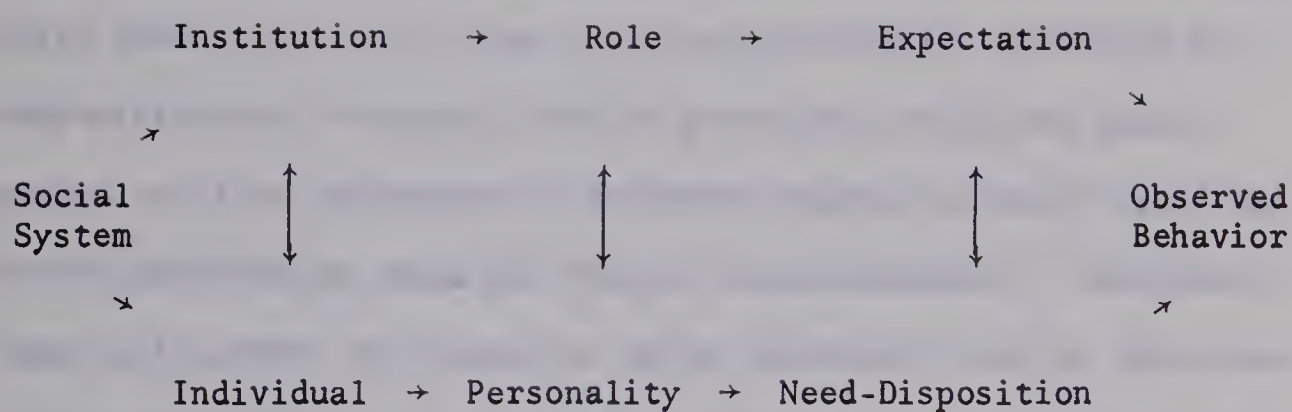


FIGURE 2

A GENERAL MODEL OF SOCIAL BEHAVIOR (8, p. 156)





ships hold for any unit of interpersonal relations: a school system, a single school, or a classroom within a school. All are subsystems of the provincial educational system. The model, however, does not allow any prediction of the extent to which an individual *complies* by acting in accord with the expectations held by others for his role, or the extent to which he *initiates* by acting in a way consistent with his own needs. Taking into account the personality dimension, it is clear that two individuals, differing in dispositions but occupying similar positions within the social system, will be influenced to different degrees by their needs and by the expectations held for them as role-encumbents. Individual needs will affect the extent to which conformity with or deviation from expectations will be part of the total pattern of social behavior. Within the social system of an organization where the emphasis is on a structured pattern of interactions, the model has explanatory value.

## ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE AND RELATIONSHIPS

### Administrative Relationships

The process of administration deals essentially with interpersonal relationships between "superordinates" and "subordinates" in a hierarchically-structured social system. Implicit in these terms is the institutionalized ascendancy of one person over another and the related acceptance of this ascendancy by the subordinate. Thompson points out that roles are cultural items and are learned, and that hierarchical superior-subordinate positions in organizations are accepted because they represent learned



cultural patterns of behavior (28, p. 486). In his view:

The rights associated with hierarchical office are cultural givens. Actual behavior associated with these positions will be modified by personality, any one person being more or less authoritarian than another (28, p. 489).

The form that administrative relationships take, and the primary bases on which power is accepted may vary from one organization to another. Factors such as the size of the organization, the degree of specialized training among its members, its recruitment policies, its decision-making structure, and the general manner in which power is exercised are among the variables which differentiate various types of organizations. Etzioni suggests, for example, that three major generalizations drawn from the traditional literature on administration are not applicable to professional organizations: (1) that expert authority should be subordinate to line authority, (2) that organizations should be headed by "managers", not "experts", and (3) that there should be only one ultimate center of authority (unity of command). Etzioni claims that these statements are not characteristic of the authority structures found in professional organizations such as research institutes, medical clinics, and universities (6, p. 46).

The administrative structure typically found in public education systems in Alberta has certain of the "professional" elements that Etzioni has noted, particularly with respect to the place of expertise. On the other hand, office holding in public education is explicitly hierarchical. The provincial legislature has the ultimate responsibility for educational matters, and is





the source of power which is exercised by its own Department of Education, or delegated to local school boards. An administrative hierarchy within provincial and local systems serves to implement policy and to advise lay policy boards. While school organization in Alberta may be a mixed model with both bureaucratic and professional elements, this study focused on the orientations of teachers and principals towards a bureaucratic structure.

### Individual Orientation and Accommodation

A powerful impact upon motives for achievement of personal goals within any organization stems from the fact that the "organizational society" has tended to equate "success" with the attainment of preferred organizational positions. Prestige, income, status, and the attendant symbols of each have become to a disproportionate degree the perquisites of hierarchical positions, particularly since the entrepreneurial class continues to decline.

Consequently, to be socially defined as "successful" in our culture, one must proceed up some hierarchy. To have public recognition and esteem, hence self-esteem, one must succeed hierarchically (28, p. 508).

In public education, for example, a "promotion" for a teacher typically involves a shift from a teaching position to a hierarchical administrative position, rather than horizontally to an alternate teaching function. Within the teacher groups in Alberta, administrative positions have been accorded the highest prestige and status, and greatest salary differentials. As part of a larger study, Ratsoy compared the prestige ratings accorded by students to sixty positions in public education in the province.





Among 149 senior Education students as with 49 graduate students in Education, the top fifteen positions in terms of rated prestige and status were all administrative posts (24, pp. 100; 107-108). These findings correspond very closely to those in an earlier study reported by Kennedy, Black, and Clarke involving 1,035 students in all levels of preservice training. Administrative positions were similarly ranked highest in terms of desirability and prestige (11, pp. 31-33). Presumably, then, the "upward mobile" teacher in Alberta tends to be administratively oriented.

Merton has suggested that the participation of members in large highly structured bureaucracies may modify personalities with respect to such traits as submission and ascendancy (16, p. 380). Presthus, in discussing large industrial bureaucracies of the present day "organizational society", extends Merton's position to put forward what he calls "a highly tentative but suggestive hypothesis", namely that

. . .bureaucratic structure and its behavioral demands provide a sympathetic environment for the authoritarian type, who may in turn be equated with the typical upward mobile (23, p. 126).

The position advanced by both writers suggests that there is some kind of natural selection operative which brings into the administrative hierarchy those persons with relatively greater need-dispositions for dominance in interpersonal relations.

The administrative hierarchy created within the provincial educational systems, or within local school systems, represent promotional ladders for teachers. Does the hypothesis suggested by Presthus have any application within educational organizations?



One purpose of this study was to find empirical support for this hypothesis within school systems in Alberta. Two possible confounding elements in any test of this hypothesis can be identified. Cultural notions of male ascendancy no doubt contribute to the fact that administrative positions in Alberta have become very largely the purview of males. (Hall has suggested that it is in fact the increased size of schools in Canada generally, and the resulting opportunities for administration that has attracted an increasing number of men into what formerly was largely a feminine field (9, pp. 109-110). A second factor lies in the possibility that teachers may find outlets for dominance needs in teacher-pupil interactions in the classroom, rather than in an organizational hierarchy.

#### Bureacracy as a Form of Organization

Bureaucracy is a system of organization, administration, discipline, and control. Variant forms are found in government, business, industry, the church, trade unions, and education. Most descriptions of bureaucracy have their genesis in the writings of Max Weber, who identified its major characteristics in "ideal" forms, and his interpretations must be evaluated in terms of the historical perspectives and cultural settings of which he wrote.

The Weberian model of bureaucracy refers to a form of administration whose major elements emphasize a hierarchical structure of offices, a centralized control of decisions, and a system of procedures based on categorical rules and principles (29, pp. 333-34). The purpose of this form of organization, according to Weber, is to maximize rationality, predictability, and efficiency. Roles







for members of this type of organization tend to be clearly defined, and obedience and conformity to expectations serve to provide dependability of role performance.

Weber's treatment of legal-rational authority distinguishes between, but does not elaborate on, authority inherent in office and authority based on technical competence and expertise. For Weber, the appointment of an official on the basis of technical qualifications, and the promotion of incumbents on the same basis was eminently rational, and assured that the authority (*i.e.*, legal power) which flowed from each office would be legitimated by subordinates on the basis of the expertise of the incumbent. Parsons, however, emphasizes that it is *not* essential for the superordinates in a bureaucracy to have either superior knowledge or skill as compared with those subject to his orders (29, p. 59). For, as Etzioni points out, the ultimate justification of an administrative act is that it is in line with the organization's rules and regulations, and that it has been approved—directly or by implication—by a superior rank (7, p. 77).

The essential point, then, is that in a bureaucratic organization, *position* is the basis of power, and the legal right to exercise power resides in the office of the incumbent. But as Getzels points out, the superordinate's power is effective only in so far as it "takes" with the subordinate (8, p. 151). Therefore the manner in which power is wielded introduces the crucial element of legitimacy of a superior's directive as perceived by his subordinate. The whole notion of legitimacy turns on the ideology



on which the organization is based, and relates to the norms and values held by organizational members. If they are generally positively oriented towards a bureaucratic organizational structure, they would tend to perceive decision-making and direction by superiors as legitimate, and non-alienative. If, on the other hand, members are negatively oriented towards this kind of structure, they would tend to find its requirements coercive and frustrating.

### Bureaucracy in Educational Organizations

Certain organizational characteristics of public education in Alberta are conformable to the Weberian bureaucratic model. All personnel employed in the Department of Education structure, or by local school systems, can be identified as holding "official positions bounded by rules". Similarly, schools are governed by a complex body of law and administrative regulations, and are characterized by a division of labor and a formal structure of administrative authority. Teachers are certificated on the basis of technical qualifications based on specialized training, and are typically promoted on the basis of seniority and technical competence. Seen from this perspective, distinctions between schools would be expected to be differences in degree, rather than kind.

A recent empirical study by MacKay was concerned with the applicability of the Weberian model of bureaucracy to a sample of 31 Alberta schools. Adapting an instrument originally developed for the analysis of industrial organizations, MacKay examined school organizational structure along six dimensions which had been





posited as the essential components of bureaucratic organization. Teachers reported their perceptions of the extent to which their schools exhibited (a) a hierarchical authority structure, (b) task specialization among personnel, (c) behavioral rules, (d) procedural specification, (e) impersonality, and (f) an emphasis on technical competence. He found the highest correlations between total scale scores and the scores of scales measuring hierarchical authority, behavioral rules, and procedural specification. On the basis of this finding, MacKay suggested that these three dimensions represent "the truly important features of a [school] bureaucracy" (13, p. 77). This same finding was confirmed by Robinson, using a revision of the same instrument as part of a study involving British Columbia schools (25, p. 120). MacKay found further that when the schools were classified on the basis of size, the large schools were significantly higher in each of these three dimensions than were the small schools (13, p. 94). The finding of an inverse relationship between teachers' perceptions of "technical competence" and other dimensions, and a lack of significant differences between schools on the dimension of "procedural specification" led MacKay to suggest that the Weberian model is not entirely applicable to school organization.

#### Bureaucratic Orientation Among Teachers

On the basis of his overall findings, MacKay concluded that the schools examined in his study were generally "not bureaucratic". There was general agreement among teachers in the sample that they





preferred a de-emphasis of the use of hierarchical authority. Teachers in small schools generally desired more emphasis on behavioral rules than they observed. Teachers in large schools, on the other hand, where this dimension was in fact perceived to be emphasized, were satisfied with that emphasis (13, p. 99). A noteworthy finding in terms of the present study was that teachers in MacKay's sample generally expressed "an opinion in favor of a greater degree of bureaucratization along the six dimensions used in the study" (13, p. 163). In other words, teachers were generally positively oriented towards the Weberian model of bureaucracy as an "ideal" form of school organization.

Moeller examined school systems in metropolitan St. Louis in terms of the Weberian model. He sought a relationship between this kind of organizational structure and a teacher's "sense of power", or perceived ability to influence or affect school system policy. Contrary to his research hypothesis, Moeller found that teachers in bureaucratically structured systems had a significantly higher perception of a sense of power than did those in less bureaucratized systems. Teachers were in fact positively oriented towards the stability and predictability of the clearly bureaucratic organization. The stable, regularized structure was perceived by the teachers as conducive to their ability to influence decisions which affected their daily tasks (17, pp. 137-57).

The studies of Robinson, MacKay, and Moeller, involving school systems widely separated by geography, all found the dimensions of hierarchical authority, behavior rules, and procedural



specifications to be the crucial aspects of educational bureaucracies. All three of these dimensions derive from a concept of an organization having centralized control and decision-making. The hierarchical authority stems from an internal structure of positions differentiated in terms of power, while rules and procedures are explications of the power (or, legal authority) inherent in the positions held by decision-makers. Anderson points out that rules are the bearers of organizational authority, and operate as guidelines for behavior by communicating the expectations of superordinate administrators to their subordinates. Behavioral rules and procedural specifications are embodiments of organizational authority, and serve to structure action and also relationships between individual members of an organization (3, pp. 11-13). The fact that teachers in all three samples apparently expressed a preference for these bureaucratic dimensions is consistent with Congreve's finding that the teachers in his study desired "universalistic" administrative behavior, and formal, impersonal principal-teacher interactions (5, p. 2). An assumption can be made that individual teachers will vary in their "bureaucratic role orientations". It was the major premise of this study that such orientations involve personality factors which are concerned with general conceptions of authority.

#### PERSONALITY AS AN ORGANIZATIONAL VARIABLE

##### Personality as a Factor in the Legitimation of Power

The social behavior model presented earlier (*supra*, p.34) indicates that certain need dispositions of the personality will







predispose an individual to conform to or deviate from the role expectations pressed upon him by the organizational matrix. Expectations which are conformable to basic needs would be viewed as legitimate, and compliance would involve no psychological strain or frustration. Presthus suggests another factor which emphasizes the ethical sanctification which is implicit in authority relationships. He uses the concept of a "generalized deference to authority" to identify a psychological basis for the legitimation of authority. Presthus claims this generalized deference is the *actual* basis of most compliance, while other categories represent "mere rationalizations for this more basic instrument" (21, p. 132). The organization co-opts the deep-seated respect for authority inculcated in most individuals by socialization.

Since this form of legitimation meets individual needs for security and occasionally mediates distorted perceptions of authority, it seems to fall in the category of non-rational behavior, or at least it is less rational than legitimation based upon objective indexes such as technical skill or formal position. However, definitions of rationality must rest upon an explicit statement of the objectives of any given behavior. If an individual derives security and less strained interpersonal relations from habitual submission to authority, his behavior is rational from this standpoint (21, p. 132).

Presthus suggests that any accommodation that an individual adapts to the total organizational environment is in part a product of his perception of the organization as a "social instrument", and in the ways in which the organization engages his fundamental attitudes to power and authority. Presthus develops his position in terms of Harry Stack Sullivan's interpersonal theory of psychiatry which holds that the individual is extremely adaptive and maleable,



and capable of enculturation to any environment. The personality or a "self-system" is developed through successful anxiety-reducing accommodation to the wishes of successive authority figures encountered from infancy to maturity—parents, teachers, supervisors, *etc.* The place of anxiety (unpleasant tension) is central in Sullivan's theory. He posits that an anxiety-conformity-approval syndrome is generated in the socialization of the individual, and represents a stable kind of behavior pattern that he develops in relation to the authority of "significant others" (22, pp. 50-52).

Presthus elaborates this position, suggesting that

. . . the successive authority relationships that begin in childhood and continue throughout one's life culminate in a self-system that normally includes a *generalized* deference toward authority. This pattern of behavior is continually reinforced because it reduces anxiety by ensuring the approval of those who are important to us (23, p. 144).

This anxiety-conformity-approval syndrome is extremely powerful in the context of any organization, since personal interactions are structured, and ambiguity and spontaneity are decreased. Role-related organizational behavior is structured to a very large extent, inasmuch as organizations are systems of expectations, invariably reinforced by sanctions. Institutionalized status differences serve as cues for the behavior of members. The basic employment contract is in fact a "master-servant" relationship, a legal justification that those "in authority" have the *right* to demand compliance, and those subordinated have the *duty* to obey. This interaction between members and their employing organization is described by Schein as "the working out of a psychological





contract" through a process of reciprocation (27, p. 44).

The discussion above has examined reactions to authority in psychological terms and has not taken into account a number of intervening variables of a sociological nature (such as reference group norms) which would affect compliance with organizational expectations. The focus has been on those psychological factors which would tend to predispose individuals towards compliance and deference toward authority figures.

#### Personality as a Determinant of Role Orientation

Confronted with a complex system of organizational facilities, role expectations, and conditions of work, an individual effects his own personal mode of accommodation or role definition within the organization. A distinction should be noted between role definition expressed in *behavioral* terms, in which there is a demonstrated pattern of role performance, and in *ideational* terms, or role conceptions—the focus of the present study. Role performance and role conception are independent but clearly related variables.

Role performance cannot be viewed as a modal pattern conforming only to the structural requirements of an organization, since organizational behavior is the resultant of many forces. Some derive clearly from the organizational matrix: role expectations, hierarchical authority, the presence of sanctions, and peer group influences. Other determinants, such as role conception, and role-relevant personality characteristics, lie within the person. Need-dispositions are internal forces which lead the





individual to select and synthesize certain forms of adaptations rather than others. In Levinson's view:

Role definition may be seen from one perspective as an aspect of the personality. It represents the individual's attempt to structure his social reality, to define his place within it, and to guide his search for meaning and gratification. Role definition is, in this sense, an ego achievement—a reflection of the person's capacity to resolve conflicting demands, to utilize existing opportunities and to create new ones, to find some balance between stability and change, conformity and autonomy, the ideal and the feasible, in a complex environment (12, p. 177).

Personality factors, then, influence the basic conceptions or personal role definition an individual adopts for his organizational role. These factors predispose him to conform, to deviate, to avoid sanctions, or to identify with the organization in response to the role demands which are placed on him. These demands are in turn related to the nature of the organizational structure.

This study was concerned with bureaucracy as a form of organization and posited that there would be differing degrees of positive orientation among teachers towards the structuring of school organizations on such a model. The theoretical bases of the study have indicated that the role conception as "bureaucratic employee" that any teacher has for himself will be functionally related to certain general attitudes and conceptions which he holds towards authority. A further statement by Levinson is germane at this point:

An individual's conception of his role in a particular organization is to be seen within a series of wider psychological contexts: his conception of his occupational



role generally (occupational identity), his basic values, life goals, and conception of self, and so on. Thus one's way of relating to authorities in the organization depends in part upon his relation to authority in general, and upon his fantasies, conscious and unconscious, about the "good" and the "bad" parental authority. His ways of dealing with the stressful aspects of organizational life are influenced by the impulses, anxieties, and modes of defense that these stresses activate in him (12, p. 178).

## AUTHORITARIANISM

### Authoritarianism as a Personality Construct

A detailed research study was conducted at the University of California by Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswik, Sanford, and others into "Authoritarianism" as a cluster of personality dimensions (1, pp. 759-762). As conceived by Adorno and his associates, authoritarianism is a complex variable involving a number of related component personality attributes. They see the core of the authoritarian pattern or syndrome as being a set of behavioral and attitudinal characteristics reflecting a preoccupation with the factors of power and authority in interpersonal relationships—a preoccupation they labelled the "power-complex".

While the original function of the study was part of a series of studies in prejudice, the focus on authoritarianism was derived from the writers' conception of a central structure of personality which had a determining influence not only in overt prejudice, but in much broader areas of behavior: social attitudes, political behavior, and role-taking in groups. Though the concept of authoritarianism was not devised by Adorno and his associates, it is their work which is typically cited for any definitive discussion of the concept, which they consider to be represented by







a syndrome of functionally related variables.

50

Maslow, who along with Fromm was responsible for much of the underlying theory, has suggested that there is an authoritarian personality which predisposes an individual to certain clusters of tendencies. This predisposition springs from a basic authoritarian conception of the world as a hostile environment where strength and power to dominate are essential. In Maslow's view, such a personality structure produces a tendency in an individual to regard other humans as rivals who are superior (and therefore to be feared, resented, bootlicked, or admired) or inferior (and therefore to be scorned, humiliated, and dominated). People are ranked on a vertical scale as if on a ladder, and divided into those above and those below the subject on this hierarchy (14, p. 404).

Adorno and his associates suggested that the individual who has an "ideal" authoritarian personality would show reverence for authority, disdain for weakness, distrust for variability and heterogeneity, seek simple solutions to problems, and have a tendency to see things in absolute terms or in dichotomies. The power-complex within the authoritarian personality has contradictory elements. On the one hand the individual high in authoritarianism turns his aggression inward; he adopts a respectful, obedient, deferential posture towards authority figures and uncritically accepts a set of conventional, moralistic values. On the other hand, he partially identifies with powerful figures and has a need to see himself as strong and powerful. His personal relationships are characteristically regarded in terms of power and status rather



than in terms of affection and friendship. His style of life is marked by rigidity and categorical thinking, with a need for certainty and lack of ambiguity (25, pp. 275-277).

The measurement of these dimensions was the purpose of the research group which ultimately produced *The Authoritarian Personality*. The scales produced by Adorno have become operational definitions of the general concept, and have been used in hundreds of research studies in the social sciences where attitudinal bases for behavior have been sought. A description of the scales is provided in the following chapter dealing with the design of the study.

#### Authoritarianism in the Teaching Force

The F Scale has been widely used in social science research in which a personality measure is used to differentiate subjects performing differently in some experimental situation. Insofar as the F Scale measures an organized functioning of the personality, it identifies a "type". The scale presumably taps central dispositions of personality by taking into account some of the ways in which these dispositions are dynamically related to *surface* manifestations. A central assumption of personality organization is that diverse behaviors are motivated in part by fewer, more basic dispositions.

A number of studies have applied the scale to samples of teachers in the United States. Newsome and Gentry found in a sample of over sixty school superintendents that F Scores were significantly higher than in a comparable sample of college teachers





but lower than a selected sample of female elementary school teachers (18, p. 253). Jones and Gaier found progressively higher F scores in samples including 62 students of journalism, 76 education students and 57 teachers (11, pp. 211-219). Teachers as a group do not show consistently higher F scores than any other occupational group. McGee, for example, found that teachers had an over-all mean F-scale score per item almost one point lower than the normative sample of middle class adults used by Adorno. McGee also found a highly significant relationship between F Scale scores and specific teacher behaviors in the classroom which had been independently assessed as overtly authoritarian. The conceptual similarity between autocratic administrative style and authoritarian personality structure has not escaped educational researchers. Lambert used the F Scale to discriminate between "authoritarian" and "non-authoritarian" school officials; Wilcox was able to relate authoritarianism among teachers to expectations held for the principal's role; but Hines found no relationship between authoritarian personality tendencies and manifest administrative styles among principals (4, p. 783).

To the writer's knowledge, no use of the F Scale has been made with Alberta teachers, but certain inferences can be made with respect to the presence of authoritarian orientations among teachers. Three studies have made use of the Meyers-Briggs Type Indicator as a personality measure. Von Fange administered the MBTI to a sample of 1084 education students, teachers, and administrators. He hypothesized a pyramid of personality types which could be





attributed to increasing selectivity for the differing levels of organization. He found that all sample populations were different from the general population in the distribution of personality types, but there was only partial support for his hypothesis of pyramidal distribution. Educational administrators, when compared with teachers in service, did not differ significantly, but not all teacher preference-types were characteristic of administrators (30, p. 178). As part of another study, Plaxton replicated the portion of von Fange's study dealing with the preference-types of principals, and found the same modal pattern (20, p. 58). MacKay made essentially the same finding as the other two investigators concerning the preference-types among the teacher population in Alberta (13, p. 121). All three studies reported a clustering of "Judgmentals" as opposed to "Perceptives" in the teaching force. The MBTI manual indicates that Perceptives "like to adapt to changing situations, like to leave things free for alterations"; and that Judgmentals "like to get things settled and wrapped up, may not notice new things which need to be done". Apparently there is a consistent way in which persons categorized by this preference type process information. MacKay found the Judgmental types tended to favor an emphasis on rules and procedural specification as part of a desired school structure (13, p. 129). Anderson and Hunka suggest that the MBTI description indicates an authoritarian dimension among the Judgmental group (2, p. 81).



## SUMMARY

This chapter outlined the major elements of theory underlying the study. Insights drawn from the General Theory of Action, and elaborated by Getzels and Guba, were used to explain the interactive nature of personality, role, and social system. The special context of roles as administrative relationships was examined, with particular reference to schools as examples of special types of bureaucratic structure. The place of personality factors in individual role orientations was described, with reference to the legitimation of authority, and positive evaluation of the structural environment typical of bureaucratic organization. The concept of authoritarianism as a personality construct was examined, and put forward as an explanatory variable in accounting for positive orientations towards hierarchical power in general and for the legitimation of positional authority in particular. Relevant empirical evidence was cited from a variety of studies dealing with psychological and sociological factors involved in organizational behavior.





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## CHAPTER IV

### THE DESIGN AND INSTRUMENTATION OF THE STUDY

#### INTRODUCTION

Six problem areas were investigated in this study, all involving the two major variables of authoritarianism and bureaucratic role orientation. The first two problems concerned the determination of differences between principals and teachers on their expressions of authoritarianism as measured by an adaptation of the "F Scale", and their bureaucratic role orientation as measured by Corwin's "Bureaucratic-Employee Status Orientation Scales". A third problem was to determine relationships between these two major variables in terms of correlations between the total scale scores. A fourth problem was concerned with the relationship between bureaucratic role orientation and global satisfaction with teaching among the respondents. Finally, two problems were concerned with determining relationships between authoritarianism, bureaucratic role orientation, and perceptions of the legitimacy of and anticipated compliance with a principal's positional authority in six hypothetical conflict incidents.

The research problems and the hypotheses drawn for empirical testing are set out below. Principals in all cases were male, since female principals were excluded from the study.

#### RESEARCH PROBLEMS AND HYPOTHESES

##### Research problem 1.

To determine whether principals and teachers differ in the degree of authoritarianism they express.



Hypothesis 1.0: Principals have significantly higher mean authoritarianism scores than do male teachers not oriented towards administrative positions.

Hypothesis 1.1: There is no significant difference between the mean authoritarianism scores of principals and male teachers oriented towards administrative positions.

Hypothesis 1.2: There is no significant difference between the mean authoritarianism scores of male and female teachers not oriented towards administrative positions.

Research problem 2.

To determine whether principals and teachers differ in the degree of bureaucratic orientation they express.

Hypothesis 2.0: Principals have significantly higher mean bureaucratic orientation scores than do male teachers oriented towards teaching as a career.

Hypothesis 2.1: There are no significant differences between the mean bureaucratic role orientation scores of principals and male teachers who are oriented towards administrative positions.

Hypothesis 2.2: Male teachers oriented towards administrative positions have higher mean bureaucratic role orientation scores than do male teachers who are oriented towards teaching positions.

Hypothesis 2.3: There are no significant differences in the mean bureaucratic role orientation scores of male teachers categorized in terms of education level.

Hypothesis 2.4: There are no significant differences in the mean bureaucratic orientation scores of female teachers categorized in terms of education level.





To determine the relationship between the major variables of authoritarianism and bureaucratic orientation.

Hypothesis 3.0: There are significant positive correlations between the subscale scores of principals and teachers on the authoritarianism scale and their subscale scores on the bureaucratic role orientation scale.

Hypothesis 3.1: There are significant positive correlations between the total scores of principals and teachers on the authoritarianism scale and their total scores on the bureaucratic role orientation scale.

Hypothesis 3.2: Principals who are ranked "high" in authoritarianism have significantly higher mean bureaucratic role orientation scores than do principals who are ranked "low" in authoritarianism.

Hypothesis 3.3: Male teachers who are ranked "high" in authoritarianism have significantly higher mean bureaucratic role orientation scores than do male teachers who are ranked "low" in authoritarianism.

Hypothesis 3.4: Female teachers who are ranked "high" in authoritarianism have significantly higher mean bureaucratic role orientation scores than do female teachers ranked "low" in authoritarianism.

Research problem 4.

To determine the relationship between bureaucratic role orientation and expression by teacher respondents of global satisfaction with teaching as a career.



Hypothesis 4.0: Male teachers who express satisfaction with teaching as a career have higher mean bureaucratic role orientation scores than do male teachers who express dissatisfaction with teaching as a career.

Hypothesis 4.1: Female teachers who express satisfaction with teaching as a career have higher mean bureaucratic role orientation scores than do female teachers who express dissatisfaction with teaching as a career.

Research problem 5.

To determine the relationship between authoritarianism among teacher respondents and their perception of the legitimacy of the use of a principal's hierarchical authority in hypothetical conflict incidents, and their anticipated compliance with his request.

Hypothesis 5.0: For each hypothetical conflict incident, there is a significant difference in the perceived legitimacy of the imposition of a principal's hierarchical authority among male teachers categorized as "high", "moderate", and "low" in authoritarianism.

Hypothesis 5.1: For each hypothetical conflict incident, there is a significant difference in the anticipated compliance with a principal's request among male teachers categorized as "high", "moderate", and "low" in authoritarianism.

Hypothesis 5.2: For each hypothetical conflict incident, there is a significant difference in the perceived legitimacy of the imposition of a principal's hierarchical authority among female teachers categorized as "high", "moderate", and "low" in author-





itarianism.

Hypothesis 5.3: For each hypothetical conflict incident, there is a significant difference in the anticipated compliance with a principal's request among female teachers categorized as "high", "moderate", and "low" in authoritarianism.

Research problem 6.

To determine the relationship between bureaucratic role orientation among teacher respondents and their perception of the legitimacy of the use of a principal's hierarchical authority, and their anticipated compliance with his request in hypothetical conflict incidents.

Hypothesis 6.0: For each hypothetical conflict incident, there is a significant difference in the perceived legitimacy of the imposition of a principal's positional authority among male teachers categorized as "high", "moderate", and "low" in bureaucratic role orientation.

Hypothesis 6.1: For each hypothetical conflict incident, there is a significant difference in the anticipated compliance with a principal's request among male teachers categorized as "high", "moderate", and "low" in bureaucratic role orientation.

Hypothesis 6.2: For each hypothetical conflict incident, there is a significant difference in the perceived legitimacy of the imposition of a principal's positional authority among female teachers categorized as "high", "moderate", and "low" in bureaucratic role orientation.

Hypothesis 6.3: For each hypothetical conflict incident, there is a significant difference in the anticipated compliance





with a principal's request among female teachers categorized as "high", "moderate", and "low" in bureaucratic role orientation.

The research problems set out above have been elaborated as hypotheses drawn for empirical testing. In subsequent chapters, each problem is analyzed more precisely in terms of selected elements of the underlying theory. For ease of reference, all research problems and hypotheses are restated immediately before the report of relevant findings is presented.

### DATA REQUIRED

In order to test the hypotheses set out for this study, the investigator constructed a standardized questionnaire which was administered to a selected sample of Alberta teachers and male principals. The instrument included several sections designed to gather data relating to the major variables of authoritarianism and bureaucratic role orientation, as well as other variables required in the analyses: perceived legitimacy of and anticipated compliance with positional authority, and information relating to the identification, career orientations, and career satisfaction of the respondents.

The description of the questionnaire and procedures employed in developing its various sections, together with the rationale for each instrument, are set out in the succeeding sections of this chapter.

### THE MEASUREMENT OF AUTHORITARIANISM

#### The Selection of the Instrument

In choosing an attitude scale as an indicator of personality,



the investigator made the assumption that orientations towards authority in general could be adequately measured through a short paper and pencil test, and without relying on exhaustive projective techniques and other methods beyond his competence or resources. Guided by the theoretical formulations of Presthus, and the speculation of various social scientists on the cognitive style typically labelled "authoritarianism", the investigator elected to use an abbreviated version of *The California F Scale* developed by Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswik, Levinson and Sanford at Berkeley in 1950(1).

The choice of this instrument carried some risks, since the methodology and general approach of the original researchers has frequently been called into question. Yet the original formulations have withstood the critics, and the concepts are still widely employed. The current literature yields ample evidence of the continued use of the original instrument or some variant form of it, and the scale continues to generate findings which are theoretically consistent with the variables being related. It remains in frequent use when attempts are made to trace in psychological terms some linkage between personality and some form of ideology, belief system, or other orientation.

### *The California F Scale*

Extending the view of Fromm, Maslow, and others, Adorno and his associates devised a series of scales designed to determine how authoritarianism in the personality would be expressed in various social roles. The basic assumption in the scale construction was that some of the deeper needs of the personality would be







expressed by agreement with statements of overt styles of behavior or beliefs. The rationale for selecting items was drawn from psychoanalytic theory, and were designed to tap a surface manifestation of more basic aspects of the personality.

The "F" scale was intended as a measure of "Fascist mentality"—the label indicating the primary function of the original research. The items have no direct relation to any political ideology, however. The instrument contains nine subscales dealing with different dimensions of the authoritarian personality. A full description of the scales and the underlying theory is provided in Appendix D. In describing the nine variables which make up the content of the F Scale, the authors regarded each as "a more or less central trend in the person which, in accordance with some dynamic process, expresses itself on the surface in ethnocentrism as well as in diverse psychologically related opinions and attitudes" (1, p. 228). These variables were thought of as going together to form a single syndrome of a more or less enduring structure. In describing the approach followed by the research team, Sanford points out that syndromes enjoy no true independence themselves, but are functionally related to the still broader context of personality in which they are embedded:

Thus it is that individuals may exhibit the same syndrome in about the same degree and yet differ among themselves in numerous significant ways. It is not proper to speak of an individual as "an authoritarian personality," thus implying that this is all one needs to know about him. No syndrome can ever totally embrace a person. Even when authoritarianism is pronounced, what emerges in behavior will depend on what other syndromes are present. The closest one can come to speaking about a type of person is that some broad and complex syndrome stands out above all the other known patterns (20, p. 286).



While suggesting that "high authoritarianism" is in fact one syndrome, Sanford describes "sub-syndromes" in which different emphases appear among the variables in the over-all structure.

### Instrumentation for the Study

The sub-syndrome of interest for the present study was the "power complex", involving focal conceptions of power and authority in interpersonal relations. Consistent with the rationale presented by Presthus (17, p. 127) concerning certain authoritarian elements which would predispose an individual towards bureaucratic values, four subscales of the F Scale were selected as measures of deep-seated attitudes towards power and authority in the larger society and in interpersonal relations. The subscales selected, and the dimensions they purported to measure, were:

- (a) Conventionalism—a rigid adherence to conventional middle class values;
- (b) Authoritarian submission—submissive, uncritical attitudes toward moral authorities of the in group;
- (c) Authoritarian aggression—tendency to be on the lookout for, and to condemn, reject, and punish people who violate conventional values;
- (d) Power and Toughness—preoccupation with dominance-submission, strong-weak, leader-follower dimension; identification with power figures; exaggerated assertion of strength and toughness (1, pp. 255-6).\*

Item content. The items selected for the four subscales combined to form the scale for the study included four statements designed to measure "Conventionalism", seven for "Authoritarian Submission", eight for "Authoritarian Aggression", and six for

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\*Permission to use the scales in the research was received from the publishers, Harper & Row, New York. (See correspondence, Appendix F), p.268.





"Power and Toughness". While the modified scale provided for twenty-five responses, only nineteen items were included. In line with the theory underlying the instrument, six items were considered to be drawn from the same universe of interest with respect to measuring attitudes in two subscales.

In the original research study conducted by Adorno and his associates, a large number of items were selected on two major criteria: (1) each item should have a maximum of *indirectness*, so that it would appear to be removed from the actual area of interest, and (2) each item should achieve a proper balance between irrationality and objective truth. That is, each item had to have a degree of rational appearance, but it had to be formulated in such a way that its rationality would not be the major factor making for agreement or disagreement with the statement. Items which had little discriminating power were progressively eliminated, until the final version (Form 45/40) included forty-four items which significantly discriminated between the upper and lower quartiles of the normative sample.

The nine subscales of the original F Scale were shown to intercorrelate highly with the total scale (1, pp. 261-62), and accordingly the four subscales could be detached to form a new scale, inasmuch as they were demonstrated to measure closely inter-related elements. This modified scale was tested in the pilot project conducted prior to the field study (see Appendix B), and demonstrated an acceptable degree of factorial validity, in that items correlated well with each other, and with the subscales and total scale. The literature indicates that modified and shortened





versions of the original F Scale have been widely used where the interest of the researcher has involved certain elements of the broad cluster of facets which Adorno and his associates identified as authoritarianism.

Reliability of the scales. The reliability of the original scale, mean scores per item, and ranges of scores of each of the 14 groups (n = 1518) taking the final Form 40/45 is presented in Table LXIII in Appendix D, p. 260. The average of reliability quotient was .90, with a range of .81 to .97, indicating the total scale had been developed to a point where it met rigorous statistical requirements. A reliability of .90 may be interpreted to mean that a scale can place individuals along a dimension (21, pp. 181-82)—in this case a broad and complex dimension—with a small margin of error.

Validity of the scales. The approach to the validation of the original scales lay in the development and selection of each item by the panel of researchers involved in the Berkeley studies. Items were selected to tap the same dimensions as those they have identified through extensive clinical interviews. This is a pragmatic approach to validation, but a limitation should be noted here in that validation was done by the same panel that devised the items. In the validation of scales, the interest is in the usefulness of the measuring instrument as an indicator or predictor of some other behavior or characteristic of the individual (21, p. 157). Hyman and Sheatsley, in their critique of the methodology used in *The Authoritarian Personality*, point out that an approach to scale validation by the means of some outside criterion presupposes that the two sets of results have been *independently*



derived (16, p. 77). In the derivation of criterion data from the interviews, the researchers were aware of the scale scores of the subjects. The method was defended by Adorno, however, on the grounds that prior knowledge was essential to give the interviews the necessary structure (1, p. 304). While empirical findings have frequently been equivocal, numerous studies have given support which indicates the construct validity of the scales (11, 10, and 2, and more recently 3 and 4).

In the light of previous empirical findings using the full scale and variant forms of the F Scale, no additional validation was undertaken. Item validity was determined by item intercorrelation, and item correlations with the subscales in which they were placed, and with the total scale.

#### Effects of Sampling Bias

Table LXIII (Appendix D, p.260) indicates that fourteen groups were tested with Forms 40/45. All groups were accidental samples, and no claim for representativeness of the total population could therefore be made in the original study. But since the instrument was developed in 1950, it has been used in hundreds of studies in various social contexts and with people from many social strata and with differing levels of education. Christie and Cook reported in 1958 a survey of over two hundred studies in which the F Scale was used to discriminate between or dichotomize groups on an attitudinal basis with respect to another variable under study. They concluded that the authoritarian syndrome as measured by the F Scale "consistently reflected adherence to values which run counter to 'liberal' and 'literate' citizens of the United States







on whom the scores were standardized" (7, p. 179).

The essential point to note is that the scales *consistently* discriminate between groups. Rokeach, who has attempted to tap the same general concepts as Adorno in his studies of dogmatism as an alternative form of authoritarianism, has suggested that:

There is enough empirical evidence now available to support the hypotheses put forward by the authors of *The Authoritarian Personality* regarding at least the major personality characteristics differentiating those scoring high and low on the F Scale (19, p. 231).

### The Problem of Response Set in the F Scale

The empirical findings using the F Scale have been questioned by many writers because of the unsuspected methodological limitation of acquiescence, or response set. The F Scale is *all positive* in form: the respondent is asked to agree or disagree with a statement in such a way that in every case agreement represents an authoritarian response. It is therefore possible for an individual to score highly merely by virtue of having a generalized tendency to agree with questionnaire items. In fact Eysenck (12, p. 23) suggests that acquiescence may be a response peculiar to questionnaires concerning attitudes and opinions.

There is contradictory evidence respecting the contamination of authoritarianism scores as measured by the F Scale. Couch and Keneston (9) reported a significant correlation of .37 between a factorially derived F Scale and an "Overall Agreement Score" developed from "agree" ("yeasaying") responses to items from a variety of measures of diverse content. In a replication of this test, however, they found no relationship between F Scale scores and a shortened version of the agreement scale. Chapman and Bock



(5) analyzed eight previously published studies which had employed both positive and reversed F Scales (where *disagreement* with the items registered authoritarianism). They concluded that for the American college populations involved, the *content variance* (reflecting actual authoritarianism) probably accounts for only 30 to 40 per cent of the total variance, the remaining error variance being divided between agreement tendency and interaction effects between agreement tendency and content variance.

Other studies indicate that a *general* response bias is present in F Scale scores. Attempts to create scales of reversed items (theoretically, equivalent scales) have generally yielded low reliability. Couch and Keneston (9) reported correlations of  $-.70$  between F negative items (designed to appeal to non-authoritarians) and the positive version. But Chapman and Campbell (6) found correlations of only  $-.17$  and  $-.01$  between original and reversed F items, and almost no relationship between original and reversed items was reported by Foster and Grigg (13).

It must be noted, too, that among the hypothetical cluster of authoritarianism in the F Scale is the concept of "authoritarian submission" which Adorno and his associates interpreted as a tendency to acquiesce to authoritative and declarative statements. Accordingly, acquiescence may be a personality trait or dimension entirely consistent with the general scale formulation, inasmuch as authoritarianism as a construct includes predispositions towards conventionality, overcontrol, rigidity, and cognitive closure.

Numerous studies can be cited to support or to deny the validity of findings involving the F Scale. The theoretical value





of the formulation, however, is well accepted. It is perhaps regrettable that the F Scale has become for all practical purposes the working definition of the construct, and that no alternative scale using the basic underlying theory has been put forward.

The conclusion reached by the investigator was that in the light of the controversy surrounding the scale, all findings involving the cluster of variables purported to be measured by the scale would require cautious interpretation. This injunction is repeated where findings are reported in later chapters of this report.

## THE MEASUREMENT OF BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION

### Bureaucratic and Professional Conceptions of a Teacher's Role

Corwin has proposed a modification of the Weberian model of bureaucracy as appropriate for the analysis of a teacher's role as a member of an organization. In his view, a bureaucracy can be conceived as a set of partially independent variables pertaining to three major characteristics of organizational structure: (a) standardization of work, (b) centralization of decision-making, and (c) specialization of the work performed. Corwin suggests that school systems and industrial organizations do not differ very much in terms of their degree of centralization, or of standardization, but in the degree of specialization of their personnel (8, p. 103). Each of these three variables is considered as lying on a separate continuum, ranging from "high" to "low" in bureaucratic structure (Figure 3). The configuration of these variables influences the behavior of teachers in the school organization by setting expectations of minimum levels or of desired patterns of





Organizational Characteristics	Bureaucratic-Employee Expectations	Professional-Employee Expectations
<u>Standardization:</u>		
Routine of Work	Stress on uniformity of clients' problems	Stress on uniqueness of clients' problems
Continuity of Procedure	Stress on files and records	Stress on research and change
Specificity of Rules	Rules stated as univer- sals; and specific	Rules stated as alter- natives; and diffuse
<u>Specialization:</u>		
Basis of Divi- sion of Labor	Stress on efficiency of techniques; task orientation	Stress on achievement of goals; client orientation
Basis of Skill	Skill based primarily on practice	Skill based primarily on monopoly of knowledge
<u>Authority:</u>		
Responsibility for Decision- Making	Decisions concerning application of rules to routine procedures	Decisions concerning policy in professional matters and unique problems
Basis of Authority	Rules sanctioned by the public	Rules sanctioned by legally sanctioned professions
	Loyalty to the organi- zation and to superiors	Loyalty to profession- al associations and clients
	Authority from office (position)	Authority from personal competence

FIGURE 3

CONTRASTS IN BUREAUCRATIC AND PROFESSIONAL PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZATION  
(8, p. 119)



behavior. A configuration which imposes little organizational restraint and which permits an individual a high degree of freedom to define his own role is seen as encouraging a "professional" mode of behavior. At the other extreme, a configuration which stresses conformity, centralization of decisions, and standardization of work is judged to require a "bureaucratic-employee" mode of accommodation (8, p. 118).

Corwin points out that there are both "professional" and "bureaucratic-employee" segments in a teacher's total role. For example, a teacher is expected to undergo extensive professional training, and in all of his relations with his pupil-clients he is expected to be aware of their unique individual needs, and to be concerned for their progress and development in the area in which he provides instruction. In his relations with the educational organization, the teacher is expected to use "authorized" texts, teach a provincially-prescribed curriculum, and to adhere to policies set by the administration at the school, school system, or provincial level. From the teacher's own perspective, he conceives his own role in terms of expectations he holds concerning relations with students, colleagues, administrators, and the public.

If an organization can be organized around several, often divergent principles, the personnel within the organization can disagree about the legitimacy of each principle. They can and do hold differing conceptions about the organization in which they work. The basis on which they hold these conceptions will be related to *individual* reactions to *organizational* structure. Accordingly, differing personality variables will serve to explain a







portion of the accommodation pattern that individuals make to the demands of organizations which employ them.

Using the conceptual model of a teacher's position as the product of his role expectation concerning his various alters, Corwin developed "role conception scales" pertaining to professional and bureaucratic interpretations of a teacher's role. Professional and bureaucratic expectations were conceptualized as independent systems, and the absence in the empirical study of any correlation between the major scales gave support to this formulation (8, p. 176).

#### Instrumentation for the Study

The measurement of bureaucratic orientation was obtained by using Corwin's "Bureaucratic Employee Status Orientation Scale" developed as part of a research project for the United States Office of Education. The rationale for the instrument was outlined in the preceding section, and the methods used to develop and validate the scale are described below.

Item content. The purpose of the study undertaken by Corwin and his assistants at the University of Ohio was an examination of the conflict within schools between personnel of various levels. The conceptual model on which the research was based viewed the teaching position as a product of the teacher's role expectations concerning students, the public, administrators, and colleagues. Conflicts were seen as deriving from inherently opposing conceptions of the teacher's role, which was conceived as having both "employee" and "professional" dimensions.



A large number of items for the "Bureaucratic Orientation" scale was compiled following an extensive review of the literature and from reported conflict incidents. The items were judged for face validity by a panel of sociologists and educators and assigned by the panel to one of six categories which were posited as applicable to an "employee conception" of the teacher's role in the school organization in terms of the focal concepts of centralization, standardization, and specialization.

The instrument so constructed was administered to 284 teachers who represented seven secondary schools of varying size (from 9 to 120 teachers) located in Ohio and Michigan. Respondents were instructed to answer each statement which was weighted on a five point Likert-type scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree".

Internal consistency. The responses of the total sample of 284 teachers were analyzed for internal consistency using critical ratio and scale value difference techniques.

The first step that Corwin followed was to eliminate items which did not discriminate significantly between the high and low extremes of the sample. To determine the items to be retained, he compared the responses of those subjects whose total scale scores were in the upper and lower quartile of the distribution with respect to each item of the scale. The scale value difference (SVD) between these two groups of respondents was then computed for each item and tested for significance by means of the critical ratio test. Those items on which there was no statistically significant differences were excluded from further consideration.

Most of the scale value differences were significant. In





order to identify those items which were contributing most to the total scale difference, the maximum possible scale value difference was computed for each item; *i.e.*, the mean difference between those respondents who scored the highest and those who scored the lowest on that item only. Then, for each item, the proportion of this maximum scale difference that was achieved by the groups that were at the extremes of the total scores was computed; *i.e.*, the ratio of the maximum difference (computed between the groups at each extreme of each item) to the actual difference for each item (computed between the groups at each extreme of the whole set of items). This percentage, called the "scale value difference ratio" (SVDR), signifies the power of the item to discriminate in the total scale relative to its power to discriminate as a single item. The higher the SVDR, the closer is the actual SVD to the maximum theoretical value difference.

Both the critical ratios and the SVDR's were computed for each item in the subscale (using responses scored at the high and the low quartile on each subscale), and for all items against the total scale scores. To be accepted in the final version of the scale, an item had to meet two criteria. First, the critical ratio for both the total scale and subscale comparisons must have reached the .01 level of significance, and second, it was necessary for the SVDR to reach at least .32 on both the subscale and total scale comparison.

Reliability of the scale. Within each scale, the items were tentatively accepted for each scale and then randomly divided into two sets and each set correlated with the other. The split-





half reliability for the items in the bureaucratic-employee scale was  $r = .74$  ( $N = 257$ ) which when corrected with the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula is  $r_n = .99$ .

Since there were so few items in two of the subscales, it was not expected that they would all show a high degree of reliability. As noted in Table I, three of the scales reached a reliability of .67, which when corrected exceeded  $r_n = .99$ . The others were viewed as indicators of complex variables. While they could not place respondents on a continuum, they could be used to rank order respondents among themselves. For purposes of the present study, four were accepted as valid and reliable scales.

Validity of the scale. It is a customary procedure to validate attitude scales against "known" groups in order to obtain "pragmatic validity". The underlying assumption in this approach is that attitudes correspond closely to overt behavior. In this instance the scales were validated against groups of persons who were reputed to act like "good" and "poor" employees would be expected to act.

Corwin employed several criteria to validate the scales. (1) Principals evaluated teachers on (a) loyalty to the administration, (b) loyalty to the organization, and (c) utilization of standardized work procedures. He found correlations of principals' rankings of teachers on these three dimensions of  $r = .78$ ,  $.79$ , and  $.81$ . Correlation of this magnitude indicates that a ranking on one is a reasonably valid estimate of the ranking on the others. Principals' evaluations of "loyalty to the organization" were selected as the primary basis of employee conduct.



TABLE I

SPLIT-HALF CORRELATIONS OF SCALE RELIABILITY FOR BUREAUCRATIC-  
EMPLOYEE STATUS ORIENTATION SCALES (8, p. 182)

Bureaucratic-Employee Scale	r	r <sub>n</sub>
Total scales—split half (31 items)	.74	.99
Subscales:		
1. Administrative orientation (8 items)	.69	.99
2. Loyalty to Organization (4 items)	.67	.99
3. Experience (2 items)	.21	--
4. Interchangeability (4 items)	.43	--
5. Rules and Procedures (7 items)	.55	.99
6. Public Orientation (6 items)	.74	.99





(2) Teachers reported on their readiness to leave the organization, and on the terms of salary inducement which would make leaving attractive.

All teachers who qualified on the extremes of either of these criteria were subjected to two further tests: (a) low rate of criticism of the administration, the organization, the school board, *etc.*, and (b) low rate of absenteeism. Those who qualified as "good employees" were retained in the "high" validating group if their average scores of criticism of the administration's use of authority, and toward the school in general was more than one standard deviation below the mean of the total sample. Finally, those respondents who qualified on the organizational loyalty criterion were retained in the "high" category if they had reported fewer than five days' absence during the year. In summary, then, to have been assigned to either the "high" or "low" group, respondents must have been high or low in (a) evaluation and criticism of the school organization, or (b) organizational loyalty and absenteeism.

By the method described, Corwin identified 44 respondents in the "high" employee validating group, and 19 in the "low" group. Mean bureaucratic-employee scale score differences between the two groups produced a  $t$  value which was significant beyond the .01 level. The total scale, then, was demonstrated to discriminate between groups whose behavior would otherwise classify them as high (good employees) or low (poor employees).

In addition to the above groups, Corwin obtained the scores of a group of teachers on the faculty of a state university lab-



oratory school. All of these teachers had advanced degrees and were technically part of the university faculty, and were judged to be a group which would be extremely low on the bureaucratic-employee status orientation scales. The scores of this group were significantly lower than the "low" employee group which was selected from the sample. These data provide further evidence of the ability of the scales to make consistent and accurate identifications. Corwin also found that the mean bureaucratic-employee orientation scores of schools could be differentiated at the .01 level of significance. In other words, there was a "pervading ethic" or general bureaucratic-employee orientation which was significantly different across an entire staff, as well as within school staffs.

Modification of the scale. The bureaucratic-employee conception scales were constructed and validated with a group of teachers in Ohio and Michigan. The concepts tapped by the scales were judged to be entirely applicable to the role of teacher in the province of Alberta. Certain terminological differences between the American systems in which the scales were developed and the school systems in Alberta were removed, but the concepts were not altered. The two items designed to tap an orientation towards "on the job experience", shown to have low discriminating power were not included in the instrument used for the study.

(See Appendix E, p. 262) A report of statistical results involving the use of the scale is included in the following chapter.

#### Principal Bureaucratic Orientation Score

The scale items describe the role of the teacher rather





than the administrator of the school organization. The principal, however, is a significant bearer of expectations for the teacher's organizational role. The principal's bureaucratic role orientation was considered to be the conception he held for the role of the teacher. His bureaucratic orientation score was the summation of the item scores he earned by "taking the role" of the teacher.\*

## THE MEASUREMENT OF PERCEPTIONS OF POSITIONAL AUTHORITY IN THE SCHOOL

### The Hypothetical Conflict Incident

The literature revealed no appropriate scale in line with the underlying theory which could be used to tap perceptions among teachers of the legitimate use of hierarchical authority in school organizations. It was therefore necessary to construct an instrument which would indicate differential predispositions towards positional authority, and anticipated compliance with that authority. The Getzels-Guba model points out that individuals with differing orientations will be differentially affected by the same set of role-expectations (*supra*, p.34).

An instrument was constructed making use of hypothetical conflict incidents, in a manner suggested by Stouffer and Toby (22, pp. 481-96) and Gross, Mason, and MacEachern (15, pp.295 ff.). The conflict incident technique asks the respondent to take the

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\*Permission to use this scale in the study was received from the United States Office of Education, Washington, D.C. (See correspondence, Appendix F, p.266.)





role of the person in the conflict situation, and the assumption is made that his resolution of perceived role conflict will be consistent with his own orientations toward that situation as if he were directly involved.

Item content. A large number of teacher-principal conflict incidents have been reported in the official organ of the Alberta Teachers' Association through enquiries from rank-and-file members. A frequent problem situation involved the questioning by teachers of the legitimacy of the requests made by their principals. Essentially, writers sought clarification on the *legality* of the request—did the principal have this power by right of office—and on the *propriety* of the request—what was "professional" behavior in a given instance? Each of these situations represented a source of intra-role conflict insofar as the teacher perceived himself to be caught between incompatible expectations of the principal as a superordinate, and his own internal standards of appropriateness, deriving from value standards or from "professional" norms.

The instrument included six hypothetical conflict incidents based directly on actual cases reported in *The ATA Magazine* between September, 1961 and January, 1966. Incidents selected met the criterion of "professionally relevant content" in the issue involved. That is, the incident was judged to involve a matter bearing directly on working conditions which are properly the concern of the individual teacher. For example, the choice of teaching methods, assignment to teaching positions having regard for a specified technical competence, matters affecting classroom



autonomy, or the imposition of clerical or managerial activities unrelated to teaching functions, would all include professionally relevant matters. Incidents selected were judged for face validity in terms of this criterion by a panel of four doctoral students in educational administration.

Each conflict incident described concisely a situation in which a principal made a request respecting some aspect of the teacher's daily task, and the teacher was expected to comply. Each respondent was asked to evaluate the request by reacting to a single question and checking one alternative:

In your opinion, how justified is the principal in making this request?

- |   |                           |
|---|---------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> He has every right         | ] —to make such a request |
| <input type="checkbox"/> He has some right          |                           |
| <input type="checkbox"/> He has little if any right |                           |
| <input type="checkbox"/> He has absolutely no right |                           |

Responses to each of the six hypothetical conflict incidents were counted as a measure of the perceived legitimacy which a teacher held for the principal's communication. The alternative response categories could be considered as four points on an attitude continuum of legitimacy. For purposes of analyses in this study, the data were combined into two categories and treated as a dichotomous variable, *legitimate* or *illegitimate*.

An indication of the respondent's anticipated behavior in the conflict situation was gained by asking him to indicate, in the light of all factors which to him seemed relevant, whether he would comply or not with the specified request. Each respondent





was asked to react to a single question and check one alternative:

If you were a teacher on the staff of the school in which this incident occurred, and the request were directed to you, what do you think you would do in this situation?

<input type="checkbox"/> I would probably comply	] —with the principal's request
<input type="checkbox"/> I would probably not comply	

The responses were counted as anticipated compliance and considered as a dichotomous variable of *compliance* and *non-compliance* for the purpose of analysis. No provision was made for alternate responses indicating compromise or avoidance.

Space was provided for a brief comment or reaction to each incident described. These comments were not systematically analyzed, and are not reported. About a third of the respondents did comment, and their reactions provided evidence that the situations were "real"—the incidents had been issues within the personal experience of many of the respondents.

Validity and reliability. The method employed in this study was to treat each conflict incident as a discrete category and to make no assumption that the attitude expressed with respect to one incident had a necessary relationship with the attitude expressed in other conflict incidents. Such a method is frequently used in exploratory social research where the emphasis is on uncovering a relationship between two characteristics, rather than on specifying the mathematical form of the relationship. Data obtained were considered nominal variables, and no assumption of scalability of the items was made. The reliability of the items was not subjected to a stability check, and the validity of the



items was assumed from the judgment of the selection panel.

## THE MEASUREMENT OF OTHER VARIABLES

### Global Satisfaction

This item was included in the questionnaire to secure from teachers and principals an estimate of their global satisfaction with teaching as a career.

Item content. For purposes of this study, "satisfaction" was defined in the manner of Getzels and Guba: a congruence between the expectations which a role incumbent perceives to be held for him, and the expectations he feels should be held for him.

The measure of global satisfaction used in this study was similar to that used in other studies, *i.e.*, a single item designed to tap a general reaction. Teachers and principals were asked to check one response to the following question:

Taking into account all of the factors which enter into your task, how satisfied are you with teaching as a career?

\_\_\_\_\_ very well satisfied      \_\_\_\_\_ fairly dissatisfied  
 \_\_\_\_\_ fairly well satisfied      \_\_\_\_\_ very much dissatisfied

Data obtained from responses to this question were combined for analysis into a dichotomous variable, *satisfied* or *dissatisfied*.

Validity and reliability. Inasmuch as "satisfaction" refers to an internal state which the individual can clearly articulate, it is amenable to identification from a self-report instrument. Set in the context of numerous other items relating





to his role as a teacher, this item was not judged to be threatening, and the assumption was made that individual responses to this item would be valid and reliable.

While it was recognized that satisfaction with certain aspects of any position may be subject to fluctuation induced by situational variability, it was assumed that a global evaluation, serving as a kind of overall mean satisfaction score, would be sufficiently stable to justify the type of analysis employed in this study.

### Career Orientation

One item was included in the instrument to secure from teachers and principals an indication of the direction of their career preferences in terms of teaching, administration, or other positions in education.

Item content. The measure of career orientation employed in this study was similar to one used by von Fange (23, p. 195) and elaborated with certain explanatory material suggested by the "Education Aspiration Scale" developed by Ratsoy (18, p. 108). A single item with alternate response categories was used to tap a general orientation towards teaching or non-teaching positions. Teachers and principals were asked to respond to the following question by checking one alternative:

In your future professional work, in which of these general areas would you prefer to spend the greater portion of your time and energy? (Check one)

\_\_\_\_ TEACHING. I would prefer to retain the position which I now have; or, assume a similar position in the same or different school system, at the same or different grade level; or, become a subject





specialist. I would prefer a position which has mainly *classroom* and *teaching* responsibilities.

\_\_\_\_ ADMINISTRATION. I would prefer to retain the position which I now have; or, assume a position in this or another school system as a department head, vice-principal, specialist supervisor, principal, superintendent, or other system administrator. I would prefer a position which has mainly *organizational* responsibilities.

\_\_\_\_ OTHER. I would prefer to retain the non-teaching position I now have; or, assume a position which involves mainly services such as library, counseling, research, or curriculum supervision and development. I would prefer a position which has mainly *supportive* responsibilities.

\_\_\_\_ NONE. I do not intend to remain in the profession beyond the current year.

The several categories indicated a range of choice for those teachers who would prefer service functions rather than administrative or teaching positions, as well as to eliminate those who were leaving teaching. The interest of the present study, however, was in the dichotomy of administrative and teaching orientations.

Validity and reliability. In any orientation, as has been noted earlier, an individual is involved in an evaluation, cathexis, and choice among several alternatives for a course of action. The basis of the orientation is related to internal standards of the individual. The assumption was made in this study that teachers had an adequate basis to indicate a valid vocational orientation within the categories presented, and that their responses could be accepted as valid and reliable for the analysis to be undertaken. As an orientation represents a relatively stable trait, this item was not subjected to any stability



check.

### Identification Section

The identification section of the instrument was designed to elicit the following information from each respondent: sex, marital status, years of teaching experience, years of professional training, educational position held, and length of service in the same school or school system. Responses in this section were of a fixed alternative type. The information sought was well known to the respondents, and was of a technical and non-threatening nature. The assumption was made that these responses could be accepted as valid and reliable.

## THE DATA SOURCES AND COLLECTION

### The Sampling Plan

A quota sampling plan was used to determine the sample to which questionnaires would be distributed. The purpose of such a plan is to select a sample that is a replica of the population to which generalizations are to be made. Care must be taken to ensure that diverse elements are included in the sample in the same proportions in which they occur in the general population. The quota sampling plan used in this study was based on five criteria: (a) the sample should include at least 30 principals and 500 teachers (*i.e.*, non-principals), (b) employed in the public school systems (c) of counties, school divisions, or urban school districts in centers under 30,000 population, (d) in schools offering instruction in Grades 1-12, and (e) having a staff of 20





teachers or more under one male principal.

The rationale for the sampling plan accounts for each of the criteria selected. The sample was drawn from the public school system so that bias would be minimized with respect to religious or ethnic factors which may be determinants in the recruitment to separate or private schools. The entire grade range was included to ensure representation from all levels of teaching positions, and also to achieve a cross section of male and female teachers, inasmuch as there is a clustering of male and female teachers at the extreme ends of the grade structure. The small school systems were selected on the assumption that there would be a greater heterogeneity of experience and professional training in their schools than would typically be true of more stable large city systems. Another factor of importance in the study was that the smaller and more dynamic systems in which these schools were located would offer more scope for teacher mobility aspirations in terms of achieving administrative positions for those who were oriented in this direction. The decision to draw the sample from schools having 20 or more teachers was based simply on the economy of effort in gathering data.

### Sampling Procedures

The investigator consulted the list of operating schools prepared by the provincial Department of Education, which provided information as to the size and administrative organization of all schools in the province, and identified the principal, superintendent, and school system in which each school was located (14). By



arbitrarily limiting the sample to not more than the two largest schools within any system, the investigator identified within 42 school systems some 72 schools which met the sample criteria.

Permission to contact system superintendents for approval to conduct the study in the various schools was received from the Chief Superintendent of Schools for the province. All system superintendents were contacted by letter, requesting permission to contact principals for the participation of their school in the study (see correspondence, Appendix E). Favorable responses were received within the time limits established from 38 of the 42 superintendents contacted. Seven schools were deleted from the sample through lack of access by superintendent approval. Superintendent responses are summarized in Table II.

The principals of the remaining 65 schools were contacted by a letter which outlined the purposes and general format of the study, and were asked for the cooperation of themselves and staff members to complete the questionnaire prepared for the study. Within the time limits established, 48 principals agreed to participate, and 8 refused on the grounds that their school had already taken part in other research studies during the year, or that they were involved in professional in-service activities at that time. Three others accepted too late to be included in the sample, and six did not reply. These responses are summarized in Table III.

The 48 schools which agreed to participate in the study were sent a special kit of materials including an instrument and



TABLE II

DISTRIBUTION OF SUPERINTENDENT RESPONSES TO  
REQUEST FOR ACCESS TO SCHOOLS

N=42

Type of system	Number	Agreed	Refused	Late	No reply
School Division	17	15			2
County	18	17		1	
Non Divisional Districts	2	1	1		
Small Urban	5	5			
Totals	42	38	1	1	2





TABLE III  
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES FROM PRINCIPALS  
CONTACTED FOR THE STUDY  
N=65

Response	Number
Agreed to participate	48
Late agreement	3
Refused	8
No reply	6
Total	65



an envelope for each staff member, together with a covering letter for each respondent explaining the nature of the study, and a return-addressed shipping envelope for returning completed questionnaires. While the principal was the person contacted for permission to conduct the study, he was encouraged to delegate the care of the distribution and collection of the instruments to a staff member. Principals and teachers were assured of the complete anonymity of their replies, in that neither the individual nor the school would be identified in any way in the analyses. Since questionnaires could be answered quickly, teachers were asked to complete and return them immediately. One follow-up letter was prepared, and was sent to six schools. Replies from all schools were immediately acknowledged with the thanks of the investigator.

In order to increase the number of principals in the total sample, the investigator selected an additional random subsample of 45 male principals within the same type of systems as had been selected for the study. These were all in charge of schools of 15 teachers or more, and included principals of schools of varying administrative structure. Of the 45 principals contacted, 37 returned useable questionnaires in time to be included in the study, with three others submitting returns late. Three principals returned blank questionnaires, and two did not reply.

#### Summary of Returns

Of the 48 schools included in the sample for the study, 47 submitted complete sets of questionnaires. Of this total 44 were submitted within the time limits established, and three other





sets arrived too late to be included. The majority of schools returned a high proportion of questionnaires, but three schools in which fewer than half of the questionnaires were returned were eliminated because such samples were unlikely to be representative in terms of sex, grade level, and other variables. One school which had agreed to participate did not submit completed questionnaires. Analyses for the study involved returns from 41 schools. The returns are summarized in Table IV.

There were 1123 teachers and principals in the 44 schools submitting returns for the study, which together with 45 additional principals in the subsample, made a total of 1168 potential respondents. Questionnaires were returned from 872 teachers and principals in the school sample, and from 43 of the 45 principals contacted, for a total return of 915 questionnaires, a response of 78.3 per cent. Not all returns were used: 57 were not available in time for inclusion, and 28 questionnaires from schools with low participation were discarded, as were 33 others which were either incomplete\*, or had response patterns which suggested frivolous or spurious answers. Six questionnaires returned by principals were excluded for similar reasons. A total of 791 questionnaires were available for the analyses required by the study (Table V).

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\*Questionnaires in which three or fewer items were not completed were accepted, but with the neutral response assigned. Questionnaires with more than three incomplete items were deleted.



TABLE IV

DISTRIBUTION OF RETURNS FROM SCHOOLS  
ACCEPTING PARTICIPATION IN THE STUDY

N=48

Response	Number
Accepted for analyses	41
Late returns	3
Low rate of participation	3
No return	1
Total	48



TABLE V

DISTRIBUTION OF RETURNS OF QUESTIONNAIRES FROM  
PARTICIPATING SCHOOLS AND PRINCIPALS

Category	Number	Participation
School Sample: (N = 1123)		
Accepted for analyses	754	.674
Deleted through lateness	57	.052
Deleted from low participation schools	28	.021
Incomplete or rejected	33	.030
Not returned	251	.222
Total	1123	.999
Principal Subsample: (N = 45)		
Accepted for analyses	37	.822
Deleted through lateness	3	.067
Incomplete	3	.067
Not returned	2	.044
Total	45	1.000





The data gathered were transcribed to coded IBM cards and all analyses were carried out through the use of a card sorter and IBM 7040 computer.

Existing computer programs\* were employed for the following analyses:

1. Pearson product-moment correlation for all items, subscales and total scales for authoritarianism and bureaucratic role orientation scores;
2.  $t$ -tests and Welch  $t$ -prime tests where unequal variances occurred for mean scores on all subscales and scales;
3. One way analysis of variance together with Newman-Keuls comparisons between ordered means, and
4. Chi-square tests for the nominal data relating to hypothetical conflict incidents.

#### Significance Levels

For all tests of statistical significance reported in this study a criterion level of .05 was established. In the majority of tables the actual probability levels obtained are reported, since these provide a more accurate statement of results than the simple acceptance or rejection based on the .05 level criterion.

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\*Generous assistance in programming was provided by Walter Muir, of the Division of Educational Research Services, University of Alberta.



## THE PILOT STUDY

A pilot study involving two levels of education students at the University of Alberta was undertaken by the investigator prior to the major study described in this report. The purpose of the pilot study was threefold: (1) to obtain data to determine the workability of the modified F Scale and to check item correlations with subscale and modified scale; (2) to determine in a similar way the suitability of Corwin's Bureaucratic Employee Status Role Orientation Scale, and to test the discriminating power of the instrument; and (3) to determine whether there was any functional relationship between the two variables selected for study. A full description of the pilot study is included as an appendix to this report (Appendix B, p.219).

## SUMMARY

This chapter outlined the research problems of the study, and enumerated the hypotheses drawn for empirical testing. The rationale for the selection of instruments was given, along with relevant information concerning their development and modification. A general description of the questionnaire developed for the study was presented, and finally there was an outline of the quota sampling plan followed, together with a summary of the results of the sampling procedures used.





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## CHAPTER V

### RESULTS, ANALYSIS, AND DISCUSSION: AUTHORITARIANISM AND BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION

#### INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents an analysis of the demographic variables among the respondents of the sample drawn for the study, and of the correlational analysis of the scales employed. The chapter also reports the findings for the first three research problems set out for the study, all involving the major variables of authoritarianism and bureaucratic role orientation. For easy reference, the research problems and the hypotheses deriving from each are restated, and these are followed by the results of the test for each hypothesis, and a brief discussion relevant to the findings.

#### REPRESENTATIVENESS OF THE SAMPLE

The data relating to various characteristics of the 713 teacher respondents in the sample drawn for the study were analyzed to determine whether the procedures used had produced a sample which accurately represented the total population of teachers in Alberta in centers of 30,000 or less. The proportion of respondents within various categories were compared with known proportions for 1965-66 calculated from descriptive data prepared by the Alberta Teachers' Association (11). Where data for centers of 30,000 and less were not available in two instances, the proportions for the total provincial population were used, although these data were





not directly comparable. Extrapolations from certain tables indicated, for example, that urban systems had a higher proportion of single females than was the case in smaller centers. The total sample of 791 teachers and principals included slightly more than one-eleventh of the 8435 teachers and principals in Alberta centers of 30,000 and less. With the exception of the proportion of elementary teachers, comparisons indicated that the sample was representative of the provincial population with respect to the demographic variables examined. The selection of schools in centers with twenty or more teachers produced a sampling bias which contributed to the lower proportion of elementary teachers. These data are summarized in Tables VI and VII.

#### CORRELATIONAL ANALYSES OF ITEMS,

#### SUBSCALES AND SCALES

##### The Authoritarian Scale

An examination of scores indicated a normal frequency distribution, with a sample mean of 92.99 (range 49 - 147) and a standard deviation of 22.28. A product-moment intercorrelation matrix of items from all 791 respondents to the Authoritarianism Scale was computed to check for significant inter-item, item-subscale, and item-scale relationships.\* The purpose of this analysis was to establish the general homogeneity of relationship which had been established in previous uses of the scales. Significant relationships were found for almost all correlations, indicating the items and subscales were measuring different but closely related elements drawn from the same universe of interest.. Separate matrices for

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\*Assumptions underlying the product moment correlation are outlined in Appendix B, pp. 232-33.



TABLE VI

SEX AND MARITAL STATUS OF SAMPLE RESPONDENTS  
 COMPARED WITH GENERAL POPULATION OF TEACHERS, 1965-66

N=713

		Distribution in Sample	Proportion in Sample	Proportion in Population*
Sex:	Male	258	.362	.360 <sup>1</sup>
	Female	455	.638	.640
Marital Status: (Males)	Single	52	.205	.192 <sup>2</sup>
	Married	196	.756	.786
	Other <sup>3</sup>	7	.027	.043 <sup>4</sup>
	No response	3	.011	.000
(Females)	Single	90	.198	.249
	Married	330	.725	.619
	Other <sup>3</sup>	30	.066	.133 <sup>4</sup>
	No response	5	.011	.000

<sup>1</sup>Proportion for centers of 30,000 and less

<sup>2</sup>Proportion for total provincial teaching force

<sup>3</sup>Includes widowed, divorced, separated

<sup>4</sup>Proportion also includes celibates in religious orders

\*Source: J.E. Wicks and T.F. Rieger, *The Alberta Teaching Force, September, 1966*. Edmonton: The Alberta Teachers' Association, 1967.





TABLE VII

PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION, EXPERIENCE, AND TEACHING LEVEL  
OF SAMPLE RESPONDENTS COMPARED WITH GENERAL POPULATION  
OF TEACHERS, 1965-66

N=713

	Distribution in Sample	Proportion in Sample	Proportion in Population*
<b>TEACHER</b>			
<b>EDUCATION: Years</b>			
1.0 or minimum	121	.335	.343 <sup>1</sup>
1.1 - 1.9	119		
2.0 - 2.9	171	.241	.221
3.0 - 3.9	87	.122	.120
4.0 - 4.9	145	.205	.218
5.0 - 5.9	31	.043	.064
6.0 or more	39	.054	.033
<b>TEACHING</b>			
<b>EXPERIENCE: Years</b>			
1	65	.092	.122 <sup>1</sup>
2	54	.076	.055
3	47	.066	.059
4 - 5	71	.099	.099
6 - 8	84	.117	.120
9 - 14	142	.199	.204
15 or more	250	.350	.342
<b>TEACHING</b>			
<b>LEVEL:</b>			
Elementary	333	.467	.582 <sup>2</sup>
Junior High	179	.252	.189
Senior High	195	.273	.229
Other	6	.008	n.d.

<sup>1</sup>Proportions are for centers of 30,000 or less.<sup>2</sup>Proportions are for total provincial population.

\*Source: J.E. Wicks and T.F. Rieger, *The Alberta Teaching Force, September, 1966*. Edmonton: The Alberta Teachers' Association, 1967.



females, males, and principals were calculated as well, which showed negligible differences from the matrix for the total sample. Item-subscale and item-total scale correlations for each of the subscales of authoritarianism are shown in Appendix A, Tables XLII to XLV, pp. 209 - 212, and subscale-total scale correlations are given in Table XLVI, p. 213. One item, number 17 (the twenty-third item of the scale), showed non-significant and generally negative relationships with items and subscales. The content of the item, "The businessman and the manufacturer are more important to society than the artist and the professor," was such that it would not likely win acceptance among a teacher group, and the negative results were not surprising. This item, while it may measure a prevailing attitude in the general population, was not acceptable to a subpopulation of teachers. The item was, therefore, deleted from Subscale I (Conventionalism) and from all further analyses using the scale. The highly significant levels of inter-correlations were taken as evidence of the general acceptability of the total scale, subject to the cautions noted earlier (*supra*, p. 72). Other measures frequently associated with scale analyses were not undertaken, as the scales had already been widely used, and their reliability established.

#### The Bureaucratic Role Orientation Scale

An examination of scores indicated a normal frequency distribution with a mean of 86.54 (range 52 - 125) and a standard deviation of 12.60. An intercorrelation matrix was calculated to determine the acceptability of the items and subscales of Corwin's





BRO Scales. All but two items (numbers 16 and 36) showed highly significant intercorrelations. Both of these items were designed to tap an "administrative orientation", but reactions were not consistent with responses to other items of the same subscale. Accordingly, the items were deleted from all analyses involving BRO Scales. Relevant data for the correlation matrices are shown in Appendix A, Tables XLVII to LII, pp. 214-219.

### ANALYSES OF AUTHORITARIANISM SCORES

#### Analysis of Research Problem 1.0

"Do principals and teachers differ in the degree of authoritarianism they express?"

The position adopted by Presthus is that "upward mobiles can be equated with authoritarian personalities" (7, p. 197). He cites the respect for authority inherent in such a person as the basis of his ability to make "universalistic" decisions which give primacy to organizational, rather than subordinate, or personal goals. This same orientation to authority predisposes him to identification with organizational values and authorities. Evidence from Ratsoy and from Kennedy, Black and Clarke (*supra*, p. 38) suggests that "upward mobility" in education tends to be equated with the attainment of administrative positions. While there is no suggestion of a one-to-one correspondence between mobility aspirations and orientations towards administrative positions, a justifiable statement would be that principals, as the incumbents of hierarchical positions, have attained a mark of "success" in their occupational field; classroom teachers who are upward mobile





would tend to orient themselves in the direction of administrators.

In any population of teachers, there will be a proportion who will aspire to administrative positions. For them the principalship serves as a "latent role". Merton's concept of "anticipatory socialization" suggests that these teachers relate themselves psychologically to principals and other administrators, and by using them as a reference group they acquire the values and orientations of the group in which they are not yet engaged, but which they are likely to enter (6, p. 384). A possible confounding variable present is the fact that administrative positions are predominantly the purview of males. Cultural notions of male ascendancy and female dependency no doubt contribute to the sex bias in administrative appointments. Of the 1109 principals in Alberta in 1965-66, a total of 883 were males and only 226 females. Other figures point up the disparity more sharply. Of a total of 5807 males in the teaching force, 1835 held positions other than regular classroom teacher—supervising principal, principal, vice-principal, department head, *etc.*—comprising 31.6 per cent of the males in service. On the other hand, of a total of 9839 females, only 629 held comparable positions—only some 6.4 per cent of the females in service (11, p. 28). Or, to put it another way, males who comprised 37 per cent of the teaching force occupied 74 per cent of the administrative positions. Accordingly, while authoritarianism among males may have an outlet in hierarchical positional mobility, the same generalization cannot be made for females.

The first research problem was to determine whether there



were significant differences between the authoritarian orientations of principals and teachers. Data for analyses were provided by the response of principals and teachers to 24 items of the modified F Scale. The following hypotheses relating to the first research problem were tested:

- 1.0: Principals have higher mean authoritarianism scores than do male teachers who are oriented towards teaching positions.
- 1.1: There is no significant difference between the mean authoritarianism scores of principals and of male teachers who are oriented toward administrative positions.
- 1.2: There is no significant difference between the mean authoritarianism scores of male and female teachers who are oriented towards teaching positions.

While the hypotheses concerned only total scale scores as measures of authoritarianism, the computer program used in the analysis made it possible to derive simultaneously the same tests on subscale scores as well. The findings reported accordingly take into account both sets of measures, but interpretations are confined to findings relating to the total scale or overall measure of authoritarianism.

Findings for Hypothesis 1.0: This hypothesis was designed to determine whether there were significant differences in the expressed authoritarian orientations of principals and rank and file teachers. To test for differences, the mean scores of 78 principals were compared with the mean scores of 141 male teachers who were oriented towards teaching as a career. The significance of differences was obtained by a  $t$ -test for independent samples through a computer program which made provision for a Welch  $t$ -prime test to adjust the degrees of freedom in calculating  $t$  values where unequal







variances occurred (3, p. 145).<sup>\*</sup> Significant differences were found, but in the reverse of the predicted direction. Principals had significantly lower mean overall authoritarianism scores than did teachers oriented to classroom teaching (Table VIII). An analysis of the career orientations among principals indicated that 10 principals expressed a preference for teaching, rather than administration. A retest comparing the 68 administration-oriented principals and the 141 teaching-oriented males increased the significance levels, again in the reverse of the predicted direction (Table IX). There were significantly lower scores for principals on all but one subscale (Authoritarian Submission), and on the overall score.

Discussion. The finding of significant relationships in the reverse of the predicted direction may be explainable in terms anticipated in the discussion relating to the theoretical bases of the study (*supra*, p.39). To the extent that the scales measure orientations towards dominance and submission in interpersonal relations, it is possible that need-dispositions underlying such orientations can be satisfied within the classroom, rather than in organizational contexts.

Another factor which might have been operative is the sophistication of the respondents, since the mean education level of the principals was higher than for rank and file teachers. Some studies (4, 5, and 9, for example) have shown moderate level negative relationships between F Scale scores and education level.

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<sup>\*</sup>Assumptions underlying the *t*-test are described in Appendix B, pp. 222-23.



TABLE VIII

MEAN AUTHORITARIANISM SCORES AND SIGNIFICANCES OF DIFFERENCES  
BETWEEN PRINCIPALS AND TEACHING-ORIENTED MALE TEACHERS

(N=219; 78 principals and 141 male teachers)

Subscale	Principals' Mean Scores	Teachers' Mean Scores	S.D. <sub>1</sub>	S.D. <sub>2</sub>	d.f.	t	P*
I	12.63	13.38	3.78	3.87	217	1.374	.1708
II	27.45	27.96	6.72	7.36	217	.510	.6107
III	25.26	28.73	7.85	9.18	217	2.807	.0054
IV	19.99	22.09	5.61	6.28	217	2.455	.0149
Total Scale	85.32	92.16	19.39	23.04	217	2.213	.0279

\*two-tail values

Key to subscales:

- I - Conventionalism
- II - Authoritarian Submission
- III - Authoritarian Aggression
- IV - Power and Toughness



TABLE IX

MEAN AUTHORITARIANISM SCORES AND SIGNIFICANCES OF DIFFERENCES  
 BETWEEN ADMINISTRATION-ORIENTED PRINCIPALS AND  
 TEACHING-ORIENTED MALE TEACHERS  
 (N=209; 68 principals and 141 teachers)

Subscale	Principals' Mean Scores	Teachers' Mean Scores	S.D. <sub>1</sub>	S.D. <sub>2</sub>	d.f.	t	p*
I	12.25	13.38	3.81	3.87	207	1.071	.0500
II	27.24	27.96	6.93	7.36	207	.681	.4969
III	25.00	28.73	8.25	9.18	207	2.829	.0051
IV	19.88	22.09	5.60	6.28	207	2.454	.0149
Total Scale	84.37	92.16	19.95	23.04	207	2.380	.0182

\*two-tail values

Key to subscales:

- I - Conventionalism
- II - Authoritarian Submission
- III - Authoritarian Aggression
- IV - Power and Toughness





### Education Level and Authoritarianism

An *a posteriori* check for this possibility was carried out through a one-way analysis of variance of mean scores of principals, male teachers, and female teachers. No significant overall differences in scores were found among principals or male teachers (Tables X - XI). In fact, the finding of F ratios less than unity among the group of principals indicated a higher degree of homogeneity among the respondents with respect to this variable (12, p. 207). For female teachers, there were highly significant differences on all subscales but one (Submission) and for overall scores. The direction of ordered means (with the exception of females with highest levels of education) indicated a possible inverse relationship between education level and authoritarian orientation. Differences were clearly directional, but significant only between the extremes of education level (Table XII). While this finding does suggest that authoritarian responses have been modified by educational factors, it is not clear whether these differences were due to a masking of responses because of increased sophistication, or due to changes in basic orientations produced by educational experiences.

Findings for Hypothesis 1.1: This hypothesis was designed to test whether there were significant differences in the mean scores of principals and of male teachers who were oriented towards an administrative career. The mean score of 78 principals and 83 male teachers was subjected to a *t*-test for independent samples. There were significant differences on Subscales III and



TABLE X

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF AUTHORITARIANISM SCORES FOR

PRINCIPALS CATEGORIZED BY YEARS OF PROFESSIONAL

EDUCATION, WITH NEWMAN-KEULS COMPARISON BETWEEN ORDERED MEANS

N=78

Subscale	Source	Mean Square	d.f.	F	P	Comparison of ordered means*			
I	Between	5.08	3	.34	.7947	1	3	4	2
	Within	14.85	74						
II	Between	15.42	3	.33	.8051	2	4	3	1
	Within	47.01	74						
III	Between	8.23	3	.13	.9435	1	4	2	3
	Within	64.40	74						
IV	Between	68.44	3	2.26	.0890	2	4	3	1
	Within	30.35	74						
Total Scale	Between	120.43	3	.31	.8198	2	4	3	1
	Within	390.54	74						

\*Arranged in descending order of magnitude.

Categories do not differ significantly from each other at .05 level of confidence.

- Key to Subscales:
- Key to Education Level in years:
- I - Conventionalism

II - Authoritarian Submission

III - Authoritarian Aggression

IV - Power and Toughness
- 1 - 3.9 years or less

2 - 4.0 - 4.9

3 - 5.0 - 5.9

4 - 6.0 years or more





TABLE XI

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF AUTHORITARIANISM SCORES FOR  
MALE TEACHERS CATEGORIZED BY YEARS OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION  
WITH NEWMAN-KEULS COMPARISON BETWEEN ORDERED MEANS

N=258

Subscale	Source	Mean Square	d.f.	F	P	Comparison of ordered means*
I	Between Within	15.04 13.86	6 251	1.09	.3718	1 2 5 3 6 4 7
II	Between Within	69.00 50.66	6 251	1.36	.2341	2 1 5 3 6 7 4
III	Between Within	109.12 74.35	6 251	1.47	.1898	2 3 1 5 4 6 7
IV	Between Within	83.39 40.24	6 251	2.07	.0570	<u>2</u> 1 3 4 5 6 <u>7</u>
Total Scale	Between Within	813.03 498.02	6 251	1.63	.1386	2 1 3 5 4 6 7

\*Arranged in descending order of magnitude.  
Underlined categories differ significantly at .05 level or beyond from other categories underlined by another segment of the same line.

Key to Subscales:

- I - Conventionalism
- II - Authoritarian Submission
- III - Authoritarian Aggression
- IV - Power and Toughness

Key to Education Level:

- 1 - 1.0 years or less
- 2 - 1.1 - 1.9
- 3 - 2.0 - 2.9
- 4 - 3.0 - 3.9
- 5 - 4.0 - 4.9
- 6 - 5.0 - 5.9
- 7 - 6.0 years or more



TABLE XII

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF AUTHORITARIANISM SCORES FOR  
FEMALE TEACHERS CATEGORIZED BY YEARS OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION,  
WITH NEWMAN-KEULS COMPARISON BETWEEN ORDERED MEANS

N=455

Subscale	Source	Mean Square	d.f.	F	P	Comparison of ordered means*
I	Between	40.52	5	2.85	.0150	<u>1</u> 2 6 3 4 <u>5</u>
	Within	14.21	449			
II	Between	78.72	5	1.64	.1477	1 2 3 6 4 5
	Within	47.99	449			
III	Between	267.68	5	3.39	.0052	<u>1</u> 2 6 3 4 <u>5</u>
	Within	79.07	449			
IV	Between	125.12	5	3.24	.0069	<u>1</u> 2 4 3 6 <u>5</u>
	Within	38.56	449			
Total	Between	1748.21	5	3.63	.0031	<u>1</u> 2 6 3 4 <u>5</u>
Scale	Within	481.10	449			

\*Arranged in descending order of magnitude.  
Underlined categories do not differ significantly from each other,  
but differ significantly at .05 level or beyond from other categories  
underlined by another segment of the same line.

Key to Subscales:

- I - Conventionalism
- II - Authoritarian Submission
- III - Authoritarian Aggression
- IV - Power and Toughness

Key to Education Level in years:

- 1 - 1.0 years or less
- 2 - 1.1 - 1.9
- 3 - 2.0 - 2.9
- 4 - 3.0 - 3.9
- 5 - 4.0 - 4.9
- 6 - 5.0 years or more





IV (Authoritarian Aggression and Power and Toughness), but no overall significant differences were found. Accordingly, the null hypothesis was not rejected (Table XIII).

Discussion. While the finding of no overall significant difference is consistent with the prediction, it should be noted that the significant differences on two subscales was again in the reverse of the expected direction. The prediction was based on the view that teachers expecting to become administrators would have similar basic orientations as would principals in service. In this instance, the significantly higher means among administratively oriented males is not consistent with the theoretical formulation. It was suggested previously that individuals with certain need dispositions relating to interpersonal dominance may seek outlet for their needs in organizational hierarchies where power accrues to position. The findings indicate that such individuals do not have stronger authoritarian orientations than those held by incumbents of hierarchical office. Differing authoritarian orientations among males cannot be accounted for by education level, and the findings noted above indicate a more complex relationship between career orientation and other variables than was taken into account in this study.

Findings for Hypothesis 1.2: This hypothesis was designed to determine whether there were significant differences in the mean scores of male and female teachers who were oriented towards teaching as a career. The mean scores of 141 males and 390 females were examined by a *t*-test for independent samples. A significant





TABLE XIII

MEAN AUTHORITARIANISM SCORES AND SIGNIFICANCES OF  
DIFFERENCES FOR PRINCIPALS AND ADMINISTRATION-ORIENTED MALES

N=161; 78 principals and 83 teachers

Subscale	Principals' Mean Scores	Teachers' Mean Scores	SD <sub>1</sub>	SD <sub>2</sub>	d.f.	t	P*
I	12.63	13.13	3.78	3.47	159	.878	.3815
II	27.45	26.80	6.72	6.68	159	.615	.5396
III	25.26	27.78	7.85	7.92	159	2.020	.0451
IV	19.99	22.60	5.61	6.76	159	2.645	.0090
Total Scale	85.32	90.31	19.39	21.82	159	1.522	.1301

\*two-tail values

Key to Subscales:

- I - Conventionalism
- II - Authoritarian Submission
- III - Authoritarian Aggression
- IV - Power and Toughness



difference on Subscale IV (Power and Toughness) resulted, but there was no significant difference in the overall scores (Table XIV). The null hypothesis was not rejected.

Discussion. The literature reveals no systematic differences among the sexes respecting levels of authoritarianism, nor did the original research (1, p. 261), and the findings of the present study are consistent with others in this respect. The significant difference on only one subscale may have been due to the operation of chance factors, or there may have been a contamination through educational levels in the female group. When mean authoritarianism scores for males and females in the teacher sample were compared, no overall differences were found (Table XV), and the significant difference on Subscale II (Authoritarian Submission) might again have been attributed to education level, although such a difference is consistent with the general conceptions of sex-related submission among females. In our society, dominance is clearly identified as part of the idealized, conventional male role. It is plausible to suggest that males might express such a preference because it is in part a masculine characteristic; females might be inclined to deny such a preference (and thus earn higher scores) in the interest of conforming to their femininity.

#### Related Findings

Other analyses not required by the hypotheses were conducted to determine relationships between authoritarianism scores and selected background characteristics of teachers.





TABLE XIV

MEAN AUTHORITARIANISM SCORES AND SIGNIFICANCES OF  
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN TEACHING-ORIENTED MALE AND FEMALE TEACHERS

(N=531: 141 males and 390 females)

Subscale	Male Mean Scores	Female Mean Scores	SD <sub>1</sub>	SD <sub>2</sub>	d.f.	t	P*
I	13.38	13.66	3.87	3.90	529	.760	.4478
II	27.96	29.21	7.36	6.93	529	1.800	.0722
III	28.73	29.09	9.18	8.84	529	.411	.6817
IV	22.09	23.30	6.28	6.22	529	1.964	.0500
Total Scale	92.16	95.26	23.04	21.92	529	1.418	.1567

\*two-tail values

Key to Subscales:

- I - Conventionalism
- II - Authoritarian Submission
- III - Authoritarian Aggression
- IV - Power and Toughness



TABLE XV

MEAN AUTHORITARIANISM SCORES AND SIGNIFICANCES OF DIFFERENCES  
BETWEEN MALE AND FEMALE TEACHERS IN THE TOTAL SAMPLE

(N=713: 258 males and 455 females)

Subscale	Male Mean Scores	Female Mean Scores	SD <sub>1</sub>	SD <sub>2</sub>	d.f.	t	P*
I	13.33	13.62	3.72	3.80	711	1.014	.3107
II	27.87	29.09	7.13	6.94	711	2.220	.0267
III	28.39	28.99	8.65	9.00	711	.714	.4763
IV	22.38	23.22	6.41	6.28	711	1.704	.0883
Total Scale	91.96	94.81	22.44	22.23	711	1.637	.1016

\*two-tail values

Key to Subscales:

- I - Conventionalism
- II - Authoritarian Submission
- III - Authoritarian Aggression
- IV - Power and Toughness



Male and female scores were categorized on the basis of years of teaching experience. An analysis of variance for male scores revealed no significant overall differences, and a significant difference on only one subscale (Conventionalism). These data are not presented in tabular form.

An analysis of variance was conducted for scores of female teachers similarly categorized. Significant F ratios were found for all but one subscale (Power and Toughness) and for the total scale score. A comparison of ordered means indicated an almost linear positive relationship between years of teaching experience and level of authoritarian orientation. Differences were significant between the extremes of experience (Table XVI).

Male scores were categorized by teaching position in elementary, junior high, and high school and subjected to a one way analysis of variance. No significant differences were found, and the data are not presented in tabular form.

An analysis of variance of female authoritarianism scores categorized by teaching position yielded significant F ratios on two subscales (Submission and Aggression) and on the total scale. A comparison of ordered means indicated that in these instances elementary teachers had significantly higher mean scores than did high school teachers (Table XVII).

Discussion of Related Findings. The absence of significant differences between males on the two variables studied and the others reported earlier suggested random distribution of authoritarianism as measured by the F Scale among male teachers.





TABLE XVI

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF AUTHORITARIANISM SCORES FOR  
FEMALE TEACHERS CATEGORIZED BY TEACHING EXPERIENCE,  
WITH NEWMAN-KEULS COMPARISON BETWEEN ORDERED MEANS

N=455

Subscale	Source	Mean Square	d.f.	F	P	Comparison of ordered means*
I	Between	69.97	5	5.04	.0002	<u>6</u> <u>5</u> 4 <u>2</u> <u>3</u> <u>1</u>
	Within	13.88	449			
II	Between	144.34	5	3.05	.0101	<u>6</u> 5 3 4 <u>2</u> <u>1</u>
	Within	47.26	449			
III	Between	258.28	5	3.26	.0067	<u>6</u> 5 3 4 <u>2</u> <u>1</u>
	Within	79.17	449			
IV	Between	70.30	5	1.79	.1123	6 5 1 2 3 4
	Within	39.17	449			
Total	Between	1816.00	5	3.78	.0023	<u>6</u> 5 3 4 <u>2</u> <u>1</u>
Scale	Within	480.35	449			

\*Arranged in descending order of magnitude.  
Underlined categories do not differ significantly from each other,  
but differ significantly at .05 level or beyond from other categories  
underlined by another segment of the same line.

- Key to Subscales:
- Key to Experience Categories in years:
- I - Conventionalism

II - Authoritarian Submission

III - Authoritarian Aggression

IV - Power and Toughness
- 1 -

2 -

3 -

4 -

5 -

6 -
- 1 - 2

3 - 5

6 - 8

9 - 14

15 - 20

21 or more



TABLE XVII

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF AUTHORITARIANISM SCORES FOR  
FEMALE TEACHERS CATEGORIZED BY TEACHING POSITION,  
WITH NEWMAN-KEULS COMPARISON BETWEEN ORDERED MEANS

N=450

Subscale	Source	Mean Square	d.f.	F	P	Comparison of ordered means*		
I	Between	33.71	2	2.34	.0973	1	2	3
	Within	14.40	447					
II	Between	148.69	2	3.09	.0465	<u>1</u>	2	<u>3</u>
	Within	48.14	447					
III	Between	313.37	2	3.89	.0211	<u>1</u>	2	<u>3</u>
	Within	80.58	447					
IV	Between	78.09	2	1.99	.1379	1	2	3
	Within	39.27	447					
Total Scale	Between	1976.14	2	4.03	.0184	<u>1</u>	2	<u>3</u>
	Within	490.34	447					

\*Arranged in descending order of magnitude.  
Underlined categories differ significantly at .05 level or beyond from  
other categories underlined by another segment of the same line.

Key to Subscales:

- I - Conventionalism
- II - Authoritarian Submission
- III - Authoritarian Aggression
- IV - Power and Toughness

Key to Teaching Positions:

- 1 - Elementary
- 2 - Junior High
- 3 - High School





Significantly higher mean scores were clustered in the female group among elementary teachers with long teaching experience but with minimum levels of professional education. The age of respondents, though not measured directly, could be inferred through its association with length of teaching experience. The significant differences among females categorized by teaching position is additional indirect support for the findings of inverse relationships between education level and authoritarianism scores, since high school teachers predominate among female teachers with advanced qualifications.

It should be emphasized that although "authoritarianism" has taken on a pejorative connotation in popular speech, no value judgments were attached to this term at any point in the study.

#### ANALYSIS OF BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCORES

##### Analysis of Research Problem 2.0

"Do principals and teachers differ in the degree of bureaucratic orientation they express?"

Evidence from the studies by von Fange and Plaxton indicates the modal personality of Alberta principals as measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Inventory to be Extravert-Sensing-Thinking-Judging. The manual for the MBTI suggests certain employment aspects of each type that is conformable to bureaucratic organization. For example, "Extravert: are faster, dislike complicated procedures, are good at greeting people; Sensing: dislike problems unless there are standard ways of solving them, don't mind routine, are patient with routine problems; Thinking: not very interested in people's



feelings, relatively unemotional, logical, able to reprimand people or fire them when necessary; Judging: like to plan their work and get it finished, like to get things settled and wrapped up." (9, p. 200). All of the preferences noted here are valuable in an organizational context, where rationality, predictability, and production emphasis are desirable—*i.e.*, where "effectiveness" is a major criterion.

Ratsoy, using selected dimensions of the Omnibus Personality Inventory with students at various levels of their training program, contributes additional indirect evidence. He found in a population of 1688 education students a group of 282 students who aspired to positions in administration. Compared with the group of 1086 students who aspired to classroom positions, the administration-oriented students had significantly lower mean scores along the dimensions of Thinking Introversion and Estheticism, and significantly higher mean scores in Theoretical Orientation (8, pp. 150-51). In terms of the concepts tapped by the instrument, the findings would be interpreted to indicate that aspiring administrators were lower in ". . . liking for reflective thought, particularly of an abstract nature, and more dominated by objective conditions and generally accepted ideas; lower in ". . . diverse interests in artistic matters and activities . . .; and higher in ". . . preference for using the scientific method in thinking, and preference for logical, rational, and critical approach to problems" than were the students who were oriented to teaching positions (8, pp. 81-3). The finding suggests a modal type among students aspiring to





administrative positions—more conventional, pragmatic, and interested in practical affairs, with a stronger orientation towards a rational, calculative means of problem solving than the group which was oriented to teaching positions. Inferences drawn from the findings relating to principals of schools and students who are oriented towards administrative positions indicate that common dimensions which appear to be easily compatible with organizational structure are present in both groups.

The level of academic preparation might be expected to influence a teacher's conception of his role in an organization. Increased study prepared the teacher to make decisions and to apply knowledge on the basis of individual students' needs, in line with judgment which is appropriate to the situation. In other words, the effect of a training program would likely prepare teachers to make independent judgments. In addition, such training reduces the distance between principals and teachers in terms of their respective backgrounds of formal preparation as professional teachers, and accordingly diminishes the willingness to impute "expertise" beyond levels possessed by the teacher himself. It can also be argued that increased training lowers the dependence of a teacher on the guidelines and procedures of the organization, and also reduces the "awe" that frequently attends status differences inherent in levels of training. These factors would, if the rationale is valid, tend to lower the degree of bureaucratic orientation that a well-educated teacher would typically express.

It is also possible to argue the other side, especially in





the case of female teachers, whose mobility in terms of hierarchical promotion is typically blocked. Increased levels of training bring rewards in the form of increased salary, and in the allotment of preferred teaching positions. For them, a stable, predictable, structured environment secures their own position, and makes explicit the expectations which attach to their roles. In other words, they might be positively oriented towards a structure which gives them protection *from* the administration.

In the case of a principal, professional training as a preparation for a *teaching* position must be differently applied in an administrative context. Although he is "drawn from the ranks" and is aware of teachers' norms, he must "face upward" as a member of an administrative hierarchy. The role of principal involves the achieving of compromise among competing units that make up the organization. An administrator must consider organization-wide demands, as opposed to the narrower specialist point of view appropriate to a classroom teacher. Of necessity, the principal's perspective must encompass the organization as a whole, and the universalistic approach is best accomplished, and can be most consistently maintained, through a bureaucratic orientation. In fact, if the principal adopts an alternative orientation, his school is not likely to conform to the bureaucratic model described in the theoretical bases for this study.

The second research problem was to determine whether there were significant differences between the bureaucratic role orientation of principals and teachers, and among subgroups of teacher



respondents. Data for analyses were provided by the responses of principals and teachers to 27 items of Corwin's "Bureaucratic Employee Status Role Orientation Scales". The following research hypotheses were drawn for testing:

- 2.0: Principals have significantly higher mean bureaucratic role orientation scores than do male teachers oriented towards teaching as a career.
- 2.1: There are no significant differences in mean bureaucratic role orientation scores between principals and male teachers oriented towards administrative positions.
- 2.2: Male teachers oriented towards administrative positions have higher mean bureaucratic role orientation scores than do male teachers oriented towards teaching as a career.
- 2.3: There are no significant differences between the bureaucratic role orientation scores of male teachers categorized by education level.
- 2.4: There are no significant differences between the bureaucratic role orientation scores of female teachers categorized by education level.

With the BRO Scale as with the Authoritarianism Scale, the research interest lay in an overall estimate of the general orientation being tapped. Findings reported take into account measures on both subscales and total scale, but general interpretations are made on the basis of overall or total scale results.

Findings for Hypothesis 2.0: This hypothesis was designed to determine whether principals had significantly higher mean BRO scores than did male teachers who were oriented towards teaching as a career. The mean scores of 78 principals and 141 teachers were compared by a *t*-test for independent samples. Principals had significantly higher scores on Subscales I (Administrative Orientation)







and V (Public Orientation), but there was no significant overall difference in BRO scores (Table XVIII). The research hypothesis was rejected, and the null hypothesis accepted.

Discussion. Principals' BRO scores were earned by "taking the role of the teacher", *i.e.*, indicating the attitude they judged teachers *should* express towards each item. That they should be more strongly oriented towards administration than teachers is not surprising (Subscale I), inasmuch as the items generally dealt with centralized decision making. The items of Subscale V viewed the school as an instrument of the public will, and an agency of the local community. For principals, this view perhaps represented a social reality, and one of the givens in their day to day responsibilities. A stronger orientation towards this role description than among rank and file teachers was therefore understandable. On the *organizational elements* relating to the teacher's role, however, there were no differences.

A secondary analysis was conducted deleting the 10 principals who were teaching rather than administration-oriented. These findings were essentially the same as those for the total group of principals (Table XIX).

Findings for Hypothesis 2.1: This hypothesis predicted no difference between the mean BRO scores of principals and teachers who were oriented towards administration. The *t*-test of group means indicated that principals had significantly higher scores on three subscales and on the overall score. The null hypothesis was not supported. These data are presented in Table XX.



TABLE XVIII

MEAN BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCORES AND SIGNIFICANCE OF  
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PRINCIPALS AND TEACHING-ORIENTED MALES

(N=219: 78 principals and 141 teachers)

Subscale	Principals' Mean Scores	Teachers' Mean Scores	SD <sub>1</sub>	SD <sub>2</sub>	d.f.	t	P*
I	22.41	20.90	3.19	4.14	217	2.780	.0030**
II	13.95	13.74	1.86	2.30	217	.669	.5040
III	10.22	10.65	2.59	2.53	217	1.203	.2302
IV	20.22	20.68	3.54	3.66	217	.902	.3681
V	18.69	17.48	3.31	3.60	217	2.454	.0149
Total Scale	85.49	83.45	10.22	11.60	217	1.289	.1987

\*two-tail values

\*\*t-prime value

Key to Subscales:

- I - Administrative Orientation
- II - Organizational Loyalty
- III - Standardization of Work
- IV - Orientation to Rules and Procedures
- V - Public Orientation



TABLE XIX

MEAN BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCORES AND  
SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ADMINISTRATION-  
ORIENTED PRINCIPALS AND TEACHING-ORIENTED MALES  
(N=209: 68 principals and 141 teachers)

Subscale	Principals' Mean Scores	Teachers' Mean Scores	SD <sub>1</sub>	SD <sub>2</sub>	d.f.	t	P*
I	22.29	20.90	3.16	4.14	207	2.440	.0078**
II	13.94	13.74	1.81	2.30	207	.616	.5030**
III	10.15	10.65	2.65	2.53	207	1.328	.1858
IV	20.00	20.68	3.47	3.66	207	1.275	.2038
V	18.56	17.48	3.21	3.60	207	2.101	.0368
Total Scale	84.94	83.45	10.34	11.60	207	.895	.3719

\*two-tail values

\*\*t-prime values

Key to Subscales:

I - Administrative Orientation

II - Organizational Loyalty

III - Standardization of Work

IV - Orientation to Rules and Procedures

V - Public Orientation





TABLE XX

MEAN BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCORES AND  
SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PRINCIPALS  
AND ADMINISTRATION-ORIENTED MALES  
(N=161: 78 principals and 83 teachers)

Subscale	Principals' Mean Scores	Teachers' Mean Scores	SD <sub>1</sub>	SD <sub>2</sub>	d.f.	t	P*
I	22.41	20.72	3.19	4.72	159	2.623	.0082**
II	13.95	13.27	1.86	2.37	159	2.015	.0456
III	10.22	10.06	2.59	2.25	159	.411	.6817
IV	20.22	20.12	3.54	3.33	159	.179	.8884
V	18.69	17.36	3.31	3.78	159	2.357	.0196
Total Scale	85.49	81.53	10.22	12.44	159	2.184	.0304

\*two-tail values

\*\*t-prime value

Key to Subscales:

- I - Administrative Orientation
- II - Organizational Loyalty
- III - Standardization of Work
- IV - Orientation to Rules and Procedures
- V - Public Orientation



Discussion. In view of the earlier finding of no difference between the scores of principals and teaching-oriented males, the highly significant differences reported above are somewhat paradoxical. There was a gap between the attitudes which principals in service felt that teachers ought to hold, and those which they actually expressed. Administration oriented teachers, not holding positions of administrative responsibility, were, according to this finding, expressing "teacher norms" rather than "administrator norms", which in this case were significantly different.

To examine this possibility further, the mean scores of principals and vice-principals were examined, and the *t*-test revealed non-significant differences (Table XXI). The groups actually participating in administration expressed similar orientations. The common orientations of principals in service—whether or not their primary orientations were in this direction—and the similar orientations of principals and vice-principals tends to suggest that some attitudinal change occurs among teachers who accept organizational responsibilities.

Findings of Hypothesis 2.2: This hypothesis predicted that administration-oriented males would have higher mean BRO scores than males oriented towards a teaching career. The *t*-test on group means revealed no significant differences (Table XXII). The research hypothesis was rejected, and the null hypothesis accepted.

Discussion. This finding would be consistent with the *ex post facto* rationale presented above. Both administration-oriented and teaching-oriented males were classroom teachers, and reacted to





TABLE XXI

MEAN BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCORES AND SIGNIFICANCE OF  
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PRINCIPALS AND VICE-PRINCIPALS  
(N=121: 78 principals and 43 vice-principals)

Subscale	Principals' Mean Scores	Vice-Principals' Mean Scores	SD <sub>1</sub>	SD <sub>2</sub>	d.f.	t	P*
I	22.41	22.47	3.19	4.03	119	.082	.9352
II	13.95	13.33	1.86	2.53	119	1.533	.1280
III	10.22	10.21	2.59	2.34	119	.018	.9856
IV	20.22	20.49	3.54	3.01	119	.420	.6755
V	18.69	18.44	3.31	3.25	119	.398	.6915
Total Scale	85.49	84.93	10.22	11.42	119	.273	.7855

\*two-tail values

Key to Subscales:

- I - Administrative Orientation
- II - Organizational Loyalty
- III - Standardization of Work
- IV - Orientation to Rules and Procedures
- V - Public Orientation



TABLE XXII

MEAN BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCORES

AND SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN

ADMINISTRATION-ORIENTED AND TEACHING-ORIENTED MALES

(N=224: 83 administration- and 141 teaching-oriented)

Subscale	Administration Oriented Scores	Teaching Oriented Scores	SD <sub>1</sub>	SD <sub>2</sub>	d.f.	t	P*
I	20.72	20.90	4.72	4.14	222	.293	.7698
II	13.27	13.74	2.37	2.30	222	1.486	.1388
III	10.06	10.65	2.25	2.53	222	1.755	.0806
IV	20.12	20.68	3.33	3.66	222	1.138	.2564
V	17.36	17.48	3.78	3.60	222	.223	.8236
Total Scale	81.53	83.45	12.44	11.60	222	1.162	.2466

\*two-tail values

Key to Subscales:

- I - Administrative Orientation
- II - Organizational Loyalty
- III - Standardization of Work
- IV - Orientation to Rules and Procedures
- V - Public Orientation



the questionnaire items from the standpoint of the *teacher's* role, which apparently diverges somewhat from the conception which principals have for the same role.

Findings for Hypothesis 2.3: This hypothesis was designed to test whether education level had any significant relationship with bureaucratic role orientation among male teachers. Data were grouped into four categories of teachers: those with three years or less, those with four years, with five years, and six or more years of professional education. This grouping was effected to yield a relatively even distribution of frequencies, and minimize distortion which would have occurred through grossly unequal group variances had the seven categories of training level been used, since males were clustered towards the upper levels of education. Group means were calculated and tested for overall significance by a one way analysis of variance. A significant difference on Sub-scale III (Standardization of work), but no overall difference, was found. The finding was consistent with the expectation of no difference. A comparison of ordered means revealed no consistent pattern, but where the significant difference existed, it was between males at both extremes of education level and those of moderate level (Table XXIII).

A related analysis was carried out to determine whether education level among male principals was a discriminating variable. An examination of the data revealed that principals were clustered among the upper education levels. Their scores were dichotomized on the basis of degree level (four years) or lower, and five or six years of university education, providing two nearly equal groups





TABLE XXIII

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION  
SCORES OF MALE TEACHERS CATEGORIZED BY EDUCATION LEVEL  
WITH NEWMAN-KEULS COMPARISON BETWEEN ORDERED MEANS

N=258

Subscale	Source	Mean Square	d.f.	F	P	Comparison of ordered means*			
I	Between	19.19	3	1.07	.3628	1	4	3	2
	Within	17.95	254						
II	Between	1.43	3	.25	.8638	1	4	2	3
	Within	5.80	254						
III	Between	29.68	3	5.13	.0018	<u>1</u>	4	2	<u>3</u>
	Within	5.79	254						
IV	Between	57.51	3	2.23	.0849	1	4	3	2
	Within	12.33	254						
V	Between	19.58	3	1.44	.2320	1	3	4	2
	Within	13.61	254						
Total Scale	Between	310.22	3	2.23	.0841	1	4	3	2
	Within	138.82	254						

\*Arranged in descending order of magnitude.  
Underlined categories differ significantly at .05 level or beyond from other categories underlined by another segment of the same line.

- Key to Subscales:
- Key to Education Level in years:
- I - Administration Orientation

II - Organizational Loyalty

III - Standardization of Work

IV - Orientation to Rules and Procedures

V - Public Orientation
- 1 - 3.0 years or less

2 - 3.0 - 3.9

3 - 4.0 - 4.9

4 - 5.0 years or more



of 38 and 40 respectively. On the basis of the directional evidence already cited, a lower mean score for principals with advanced levels of education was expected. A significant difference on Subscale III (Standardization of Work), and on the overall scale was found by a one-tail  $t$ -test. These data appear in Table XXIV.

Findings for Hypothesis 2.4: This hypothesis was designed to test for a relationship between education level and female BRO scores. Data were grouped by five education levels, and a one-way analysis of variance\* of group scores revealed no overall significant differences, but a significant difference on Subscale IV (Orientation to Rules and Procedures), where the difference lay between those of least (one to two) years and greatest (five or more) years of professional education. The null hypothesis was rejected. The ordered means showed directional but not significant differences which indicated a lower bureaucratic role orientation among females of highest education level (Table XXV).

Discussion for Hypotheses 2.3 and 2.4: No directional hypotheses were framed in the light of the findings of the pilot study\*\* which indicated that education level among university students was independent of their role orientations. A finding of significant overall difference between teachers with minimum and higher levels of education would have been consistent with the view that increased education would contribute to self-conception of expertise, and a more "professional" conception of role which emphasizes, among other

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\*Assumptions underlying the one-way analysis of variance are outlined in Appendix B, p. 225.

\*\*See Appendix B, p. 229.





TABLE XXIV  
 MEAN BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCORES AND  
 SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PRINCIPALS  
 OF MODERATE AND ADVANCED EDUCATION LEVELS  
 (N=78: 38 Moderate and 40 Advanced)

Subscale	Moderate Mean Scores	Advanced Mean Scores	SD <sub>1</sub>	SD <sub>2</sub>	d.f.	t	P*
I	22.87	21.97	3.05	3.26	76	1.232	.1109
II	14.29	13.63	1.82	1.84	76	1.582	.0588
III	11.16	9.32	2.36	2.47	76	3.304	.0007
IV	20.58	19.88	3.27	3.46	76	.870	.1935
V	18.82	18.57	3.14	3.46	76	.318	.3758
Total Scale	87.71	83.38	9.50	10.42	76	1.892	.0311

\*one-tail values

Key to Subscales:

- I - Administrative Orientation
- II - Organizational Loyalty
- III - Standardization of Work
- IV - Orientation to Rules and Procedures
- V - Public Orientation



TABLE XXV

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION  
SCORES OF FEMALE TEACHERS CATEGORIZED BY EDUCATION LEVEL  
WITH NEWMAN-KEULS COMPARISON BETWEEN ORDERED MEANS

N=455

Subscale	Source	Mean Square	d.f.	F	P	Comparison of ordered means*				
I	Between	23.57	4	1.70	.1489	1	5	3	4	2
	Within	13.87	450							
II	Between	8.75	4	1.40	.2335	1	2	4	3	5
	Within	6.26	450							
III	Between	15.00	4	2.18	.0704	1	2	3	5	4
	Within	6.89	450							
IV	Between	44.20	4	3.13	.0147	<u>1</u>	2	3	4	<u>5</u>
	Within	14.12	450							
V	Between	13.89	4	1.03	.3916	1	5	3	2	4
	Within	13.48	450							
Total Scale	Between	321.24	4	2.16	.0726	1	2	3	5	4
	Within	148.85	450							

\*Arranged in descending order of magnitude.  
Underlined categories differ significantly at .05 level or beyond from other categories underlined by another segment of the same line.

Key to Subscales:

- I - Administrative Orientation
- II - Organizational Loyalty
- III - Standardization of Work
- IV - Orientation to Rules and Procedures
- V - Public Orientation

Key to Education Level in years:

- 1 - 1.0 years or less
- 2 - 1.1 - 1.9
- 3 - 2.0 - 2.9
- 4 - 3.0 - 3.9
- 5 - 4.0 years or more



standards, the place of autonomy based on technical competence. Corwin's own research, however, found that both "professional" and "bureaucratic" role orientations could be independently held (*supra*, p.75).

The finding of significant overall differences in bureaucratic role orientation between principals of moderate and advanced levels of formal education supports other evidence that role conceptions can be modified by a training program. Of the 40 principals in the "advanced" group, 19 had six or more years of university education. As principals, the majority would have had some formal study of administration and organizational theory which may have mediated their conceptions of the appropriate role for the classroom teacher. It is reasonable to infer that type of formal education more than the number of years of study would account for the difference noted.

A further examination of the data for male and female teachers suggested that some difference might be attributable to structural elements of the school organization. The majority of both male and female teachers at higher education level held junior and senior high school positions. Significant differences on Subscale III (Standardization of Work) for males, and on Subscale IV (Orientation to Rules and Procedures) for females might then have been attributed to differences between those working in departmentalized divisions of the school and those largely employed in self-contained classrooms. A subsequent analysis of variance of male scores categorized by elementary, junior high and senior positions revealed no significant differences. These





data are not presented in tabular form. A similar treatment of scores of females categorized by teaching position revealed several significant F ratios, and a comparison of ordered means indicated lowest mean scores among high school teachers. These data appear in Table XXVI.

To determine whether sex was a significant variable in the scores obtained, a *t*-test between the total scores of all males and females in the sample was conducted, with highly significant results. For all subscales and the total scale the mean scores of females were significantly higher. These data are shown in Table XXVII.

These findings clearly indicated that sex, education level, and teaching position were significant elements in accounting for differing role conceptions.

#### RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN AUTHORITARIANISM AND BUREAUCRATIC ROLE CONCEPTION

##### Analysis of Research Problem 3.0

"Is there any relationship between the degree of authoritarianism expressed by principals and teachers and the degree of bureaucratic role orientation they express?"

This sub-problem focused on the major research interest of the study which posited a relationship between personality dimensions in the individual with an orientation towards a particular form of organizational structure, or a particular conception of himself as a member of that organization.

The third research problem was to determine whether there was any functional relationship between the scores of the respondents



TABLE XXVI

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION  
SCORES FOR FEMALE TEACHERS CATEGORIZED BY TEACHING POSITION,  
WITH NEWMAN-KEULS COMPARISON BETWEEN ORDERED MEANS

N=450

Subscale	Source	Mean Square	d.f.	F	P	Comparison of ordered means*		
I	Between	31.14	2	2.23	.1081	1	2	3
	Within	13.94	447					
II	Between	32.12	2	5.17	.0060	<u>1</u>	3	<u>2</u>
	Within	6.21	447					
III	Between	5.60	2	.80	.4507	1	2	3
	Within	7.01	447					
IV	Between	187.22	2	13.62	.0000	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>
	Within	13.75	447					
V	Between	65.17	2	4.87	.0081	<u>1</u>	2	<u>3</u>
	Within	13.38	447					
Total Scale	Between	1188.47	2	8.09	.0004	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>
	Within	146.92	447					

\*Arranged in descending order of magnitude.  
Underlined categories differ significantly at .05 level or beyond  
from other categories underlined by another segment of the same line.

- Key to Subscales:
- Key to Teaching Position:
- I - Administration Orientation  
II - Organizational Loyalty  
III - Standardization of Work  
IV - Orientation to Rules and Procedures  
V - Public Orientation

1 - Elementary  
2 - Junior High  
3 - High School





TABLE XXVII

MEAN BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCORES AND SIGNIFICANCE OF  
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MALE AND FEMALE TEACHERS

(N=713: 258 males and 455 females)

Subscale	Male Mean Scores	Female Mean Scores	SD	SD	d.f.	t	P*
I	20.78	22.64	4.26	3.72	711	5.857	.0000**
II	13.51	14.25	2.39	2.51	711	3.831	.0001
III	10.48	11.51	2.47	2.63	711	5.119	.0000
IV	20.55	22.01	3.54	3.78	711	5.056	.0000
V	17.46	18.56	3.73	3.66	711	3.834	.0001
Total Scale	82.78	88.97	11.92	12.22	711	6.544	.0000

\*two-tail values  
\*\*t-prime value

- Key to Subscales:
- I - Administrative Orientation
  - II - Organizational Loyalty
  - III - Standardization of Work
  - IV - Orientation to Rules and Procedures
  - V - Public Orientation



on each of the two variables as measured by the instruments. Data for analyses were provided by combining the scores analyzed for the first two research problems. The following hypotheses were drawn for testing:

- 3.0: There are significant positive correlations between the total authoritarianism scores of principals and teachers and their total bureaucratic orientation scores.
- 3.1: There are significant positive correlations between the subscale scores of principals and teachers on the authoritarianism scale and their subscale scores on the bureaucratic orientation scale.
- 3.2: Principals who are ranked "high" in authoritarianism have significantly higher mean bureaucratic orientation scores than do principals who are ranked "low" in authoritarianism.
- 3.3: Male teachers who are ranked "high" in authoritarianism have significantly higher bureaucratic orientation scores than do male teachers who are ranked "low" in authoritarianism.
- 3.4: Female teachers who are ranked "high" in authoritarianism have significantly higher mean bureaucratic orientation scores than do female teachers who are ranked "low" in authoritarianism.

Findings for Hypotheses 3.0 and 3.1: These hypotheses predicted significant correlations between the subscales and total scales of the two instruments. A product-moment intercorrelation matrix was computed for subscale and total scale scores, indicating positive and highly significant relationships between the two variables on every dimension compared (Table XXVIII). The research hypothesis was accepted in each case.

Discussion for Hypotheses 3.0 and 3.1: The strength of association between the two variables clearly indicates a powerful functional relationship. A *causal* relationship is not justified, however, since the two variables may be two indicators of a more complex third variable. This interpretation is directly in line with





TABLE XXVIII

PRODUCT-MOMENT INTERCORRELATIONS OF AUTHORITARIANISM AND  
BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SUBSCALES AND TOTAL SCALES

N=791

Authoritarianism subscales					Bureaucratic role orientation subscales					
I	II	III	IV	Total 'A' Scale	I	II	III	IV	V	Total 'B' Scale
I	1.000	.557	.714	.481	.300	.372	.317	.405	.269	.372
II		1.000	.580	.637	.266	.347	.331	.351	.337	.407
III			1.000	.741	.246	.364	.400	.358	.320	.447
IV				1.000	.217	.336	.359	.308	.270	.410
Total 'A' Scale				1.000	.299	.420	.420	.428	.349	.477
I					1.000	.449	.362	.454	.455	.728
II						1.000	.414	.466	.356	.625
III							1.000	.450	.355	.660
IV								1.000	.341	.599
V									1.000	.759
Total 'B' Scale										1.000

All intercorrelations are significant beyond .001 level of confidence.

Key to Scales:	Authoritarianism:	Bureaucratic Orientation:
	I - Conventionalism	I - Administrative Orientation
	II - Authoritarian Submission	II - Organizational Loyalty
	III - Authoritarian Aggression	III - Standardization of Work
	IV - Power and Toughness	IV - Orientation to Rules and Procedures
		V - Public Orientation





the theory. Both scales are measures of orientation: authoritarianism representing a predisposition towards authority in general, and bureaucratic role orientation a predisposition towards participation in an authoritatively structured organization. The scales might be considered to be measuring surface manifestations of two variables which are linked at the personality level.

Findings for Hypotheses 3.2, 3.3, and 3.4: All three of these hypotheses predicted a significant directional difference in mean BRO scores among principals, male, and female teachers by using authoritarianism as the criterion variable. Total authoritarianism scores for each group were rank ordered from highest to lowest, and divided into three levels: high, moderate, and low. Mean scores were compared by a *t*-test for independent samples. Highly significant differences were found on each subscale and total scales for all three groups (Tables XXIX, XXX, and XXXI). The research hypothesis was accepted in each instance.

Discussion for Hypotheses 3.2, 3.3, and 3.4: While there were few significant differences in authoritarian orientation among the respondents, this variable proved to be a powerful predictor of orientations on the other variable. The gross differences in means of the BRO scores when categorized by level of authoritarianism were taken as further evidence of the strong functional relationship between the two variables.

#### SUMMARY

This chapter presented the results of the analyses of data relating to the demographic variables of the respondents and the



TABLE XXIX

MEAN BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCORES AND SIGNIFICANCE OF  
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PRINCIPALS RANKED HIGH AND LOW

IN AUTHORITARIANISM

(N=53: 26 High and 27 Low)

Subscale	High Mean Scores	Low Mean Scores	SD <sub>1</sub>	SD <sub>2</sub>	d.f.	t	P*
I	24.12	20.93	2.55	3.22	51	3.914	.0003
II	14.69	13.11	1.86	1.91	51	2.996	.0004
III	11.62	9.26	2.59	2.52	51	3.295	.0002
IV	22.35	18.19	3.53	3.31	51	4.343	.0001
V	20.23	17.15	2.78	3.21	51	3.664	.0006
Total Scale	93.00	78.63	9.30	8.79	51	5.674	.0000

\*two-tail values

Key to Subscales:

- I - Administrative Orientation
- II - Organizational Loyalty
- III - Standardization of Work
- IV - Orientation to Rules and Procedures
- V - Public Orientation





TABLE XXX

MEAN BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCORES AND SIGNIFICANCE OF  
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MALE TEACHERS RANKED HIGH AND LOW  
IN AUTHORITARIANISM  
(N=173: 86 High and 87 Low)

Subscale	High Mean Scores	Low Mean Scores	SD <sub>1</sub>	SD <sub>2</sub>	d.f.	<i>t</i>	P*
I	21.47	19.67	4.60	3.62	171	2.843	.0050
II	14.36	12.64	2.36	2.23	171	4.889	.0000
III	11.33	9.82	2.64	2.21	171	4.061	.0000
IV	21.66	19.67	4.04	2.92	171	3.720	.0003**
V	18.74	16.67	3.85	3.40	171	4.095	.0000
Total Scale	87.56	78.26	13.27	9.49	171	5.293	.0000**

\*two-tail values  
\*\**t*-prime values

- Key to Subscales:
- I - Administrative Orientation
  - II - Organizational Loyalty
  - III - Standardization of Work
  - IV - Orientation to Rules and Procedures
  - V - Public Orientation



TABLE XXXI

MEAN BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCORES AND SIGNIFICANCE OF  
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN FEMALE TEACHERS RANKED HIGH AND LOW  
IN AUTHORITARIANISM  
(N=308: 153 High and 155 Low)

Subscale	High Mean Scores	Low Mean Scores	SD <sub>1</sub>	SD <sub>2</sub>	d.f.	t	P*
I	23.92	21.29	3.64	3.43	306	6.510	.0000
II	15.39	12.93	2.26	2.51	306	8.982	.0000
III	12.68	10.19	2.85	2.32	306	8.408	.0000**
IV	24.09	19.72	3.55	3.12	306	11.441	.0000
V	20.13	16.78	3.68	3.40	306	8.275	.0000
Total Scale	96.21	80.91	11.77	9.78	306	12.398	.0000**

\*two-tail values  
\*\*t-prime values

- Key to Subscales:
- I - Administrative Orientation
  - II - Organizational Loyalty
  - III - Standardization of Work
  - IV - Orientation to Rules and Procedures
  - V - Public Orientation



correlations among items, subscales, and total scale measures of authoritarianism and bureaucratic role orientation. The findings relating to the first three research problems involving relationships between the two major variables were reported. The prediction of higher mean authoritarianism scores for principals compared with male teachers oriented towards classroom teaching was not supported, but some significant differences in the reverse of the predicted direction were found. Principal's mean authoritarianism scores compared with those of administration-oriented males were also significantly lower, contrary to the hypothesis presented. Secondary analyses suggested some possible contamination of findings due to the higher mean education level and attendant sophistication among the principals.

The prediction of higher mean scores for principals on the Bureaucratic Role Orientation Scale compared with teaching-oriented males was not supported, but the bureaucratic role orientation scores of principals were significantly higher than those of administration-oriented males, contrary to the predicted finding of no difference. There was no significant difference between the mean bureaucratic role orientation scores of administration-oriented and teaching-oriented males, contrary to the research hypotheses of higher mean scores for the administration-oriented group. Consistent with the null hypotheses presented, there were no overall differences in mean bureaucratic role orientation scores among male or female teachers categorized by years of professional education.

The research hypotheses involving relationships between





authoritarianism and bureaucratic role orientation were all supported. A strong functional relationship between the two variables was found. Principals and male and female teachers categorized as high in authoritarianism all had significantly higher mean bureaucratic role orientation scores than did their counterparts ranked low on the dimension of authoritarianism.

Related analyses not required by the hypotheses tested yielded significant relationships between level of authoritarian orientation among females categorized by length of teaching experience and teaching position. Highest mean scores were found among elementary females with twenty-one or more years of teaching experience. Significantly higher mean Bureaucratic Role Orientation scores were found for female elementary teachers than either junior high or high school female teachers. No significant differences were found among male teachers categorized by teaching position.



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## CHAPTER VI

### RESULTS, ANALYSIS, AND DISCUSSION:

#### RELATIONSHIPS WITH OTHER SELECTED VARIABLES

##### INTRODUCTION

This chapter continues the report of findings relating to the major variables of authoritarianism and bureaucratic role orientation, and deals with the remaining three research problems set out for the study. The relationship of bureaucratic role orientation to general career satisfaction among teachers is presented, together with a report on the relationships of both variables to the perceived legitimacy of and anticipated compliance with positional authority in six hypothetical conflict incidents.

##### THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BUREAUCRATIC ROLE

##### ORIENTATION AND CAREER SATISFACTION AMONG TEACHERS

##### Analysis of Research Problem 4.0

"Is there a relationship between bureaucratic role orientation among teachers and their expression of global satisfaction with teaching as a career?"

The concept of global satisfaction with a role within an organizational structure indicates that, in general, the expectations which an incumbent perceives to be attached to a given role are consistent with the expectations he believes *ought* to be held for that role—his own or of other members of the same system. In other words, an incumbent who reports he is generally satisfied with his organizational role will be more positively oriented



towards the perceived structure than will an incumbent who reports that he is generally dissatisfied with his role.

The fourth research problem was to determine whether teachers who reported general satisfaction with their choice of career expressed a significantly different degree of bureaucratic role orientation than did those teachers who reported a lack of satisfaction with teaching as a career. While other than organizational elements affect any estimate of global satisfaction, the significance of the research problem lay in comparing the reactions of the two groups to questionnaire items which measured an orientation towards an organization structured on an essentially bureaucratic model.

Data for analyses were drawn by comparing the mean BRO scores of male and female teachers dichotomized as either generally satisfied or dissatisfied with teaching as a career. Two research hypotheses were drawn for testing:

- 4.0: Male teachers who express satisfaction with teaching as a career have higher mean BRO scores than do male teachers who express dissatisfaction with teaching as a career.
- 4.1: Female teachers who express satisfaction with teaching as a career have higher mean BRO scores than do female teachers who express dissatisfaction with teaching as a career.

These hypotheses were concerned only with total scale scores as measures of bureaucratic role orientation, but the computer program employed made it possible to compare scores on each dimension or subscale as well. Accordingly, these findings are also reported,





but interpretations are confined to total scale scores.

Findings for Hypothesis 4.0: This hypothesis was designed to determine whether "satisfied" male teachers had significantly higher mean BRO scores than did dissatisfied male teachers. In order to test for the significance of differences between the two groups of male teachers, the mean BRO scores of 229 "satisfied" and 29 "dissatisfied" males were compared by a  $t$ -test for independent samples through a computer program which made provision for the Welch  $t$ -prime test to adjust degrees of freedom where unequal variances occurred (3, p. 145). Male teachers who reported satisfaction with teaching as a career had significantly higher BRO scores on Subscales I and V, and on overall scale scores (Table XXXII). The research hypothesis was therefore accepted.

Findings for Hypothesis 4.1: This hypothesis was designed to determine the same kind of differences as Hypothesis 4.0, but among female teachers, and data were analyzed in the same way for 433 "satisfied" and 22 "dissatisfied" female teachers. The female teacher group reporting career satisfaction had significantly higher mean BRO scores on all subscales and on the overall scale score (Table XXXIII). The research hypothesis was therefore accepted.

Discussion for Hypotheses 4.0 and 4.1: Insofar as Corwin's Scales tap orientations towards elements easily identifiable (in kind, but not in degree) with characteristics of Alberta schools and school systems, these findings suggest that satisfied teachers had a more positive assessment of these features than did those





TABLE XXXII

## MEAN BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCORES AND SIGNIFICANCE

## OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MALE TEACHERS SATISFIED AND

## DISSATISFIED WITH TEACHING AS A CAREER

(N=258: 229 satisfied and 29 dissatisfied)

Subscale	'Satisfied' Mean Score	'Dissatisfied' Mean Score	SD <sub>1</sub>	SD <sub>2</sub>	d.f.	t	P*
I	21.10	18.69	4.14	4.36	256	2.928	.0018
II	13.57	13.00	2.35	2.68	256	1.212	.1133
III	10.56	10.10	2.48	2.22	256	0.938	.1745
IV	20.67	20.17	3.59	2.95	256	0.711	.2390
V	17.68	16.28	3.65	3.76	256	1.932	.0277
Total Scale	83.58	78.24	11.75	11.48	256	2.300	.0111

\*one-tail values

Key to Subscales:

- I - Administrative Orientation
- II - Organizational Loyalty
- III - Standardization of Work
- IV - Orientation to Rules and Procedures
- V - Public Orientation



TABLE XXXIII

MEAN BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCORES AND SIGNIFICANCE  
OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN FEMALE TEACHERS SATISFIED AND  
DISSATISFIED WITH TEACHING AS A CAREER  
(N=455: 433 satisfied and 22 dissatisfied)

Subscale	'Satisfied' Mean Score	'Dissatisfied' Mean Score	SD <sub>1</sub>	SD <sub>2</sub>	d.f.	t	P*
I	22.73	20.59	3.70	3.86	453	2.643	.0043
II	14.32	12.86	2.51	2.01	453	2.679	.0038
III	11.55	10.36	2.66	1.82	453	2.072	.0020**
IV	22.12	19.59	3.79	2.81	453	3.083	.0000**
V	18.65	16.55	3.64	3.73	453	2.641	.0043
Total Scale	89.38	79.95	12.14	10.82	453	3.563	.0002

\*one-tail values  
\*\*t-prime values

- Key to Subscales:
- I - Administrative Orientation
  - II - Organizational Loyalty
  - III - Standardization of Work
  - IV - Orientation to Rules and Procedures
  - V - Public Orientation





reporting themselves as dissatisfied with their choice of career. The rationale for the scales suggested that the higher the teacher's score across all dimensions of the scale, the more likely he would be to see himself properly subject to the direction of principals and administrative offices, to prefer rules and regulations, to accept the position of lay authority in education, and to identify himself with his present school organization. Such an individual would be predisposed to display an accommodation pattern which includes an identification with the existing goals and structure of the educational system, and a deference to institutional authority. A cautious conjecture for the finding reported would be that members of the satisfied group had achieved, or would be more likely to achieve, a better accommodation with the expectations deriving from bureaucratically structured schools than would members of the dissatisfied group.

The data gave no indication, however, of the extent to which the structural elements identified in the questionnaire were actually perceived in the school organizations in which the respondents were or had been employed, and either contributed to or detracted from their overall career satisfaction. Organizational elements are important determinants of satisfaction and dissatisfaction in teaching (as indicated by Francouer, *supra*, p. 24), but other factors such as pupil-teacher interactions and extra-organizational expectations for the teacher's role must also be taken into account. While no *causal* connection between career satisfaction and positive bureaucratic role orientation is implied, these



findings indicate a definite functional relationship between the two variables.

THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN AUTHORITARIANISM, AND  
PERCEIVED LEGITIMACY OF AND ANTICIPATED  
COMPLIANCE WITH POSITIONAL AUTHORITY

Analysis of Research Problem 5.0

"Is there a relationship between the degree of authoritarian orientation among teachers and their perception of the legitimacy of and anticipated compliance with positional authority?"

The rationale for this research problem and the one which follows is conceptualized in Figure 4 as a modification of the social behavior model as it applies to this study. Authoritarianism and bureaucratic role orientation are considered intervening variables which represent particular dimensions from the total cluster of personality elements and orientations held by any individual.

The mechanism which operates to transform power into authority is legitimation—the perception that the exercise of that power is in line with what the individual affected would expect. In role relationships, legitimation derives from internalized values and norms which serve as self-controlling sanctions, and accordingly the individual perceives that others have the right to direct him, and he grants authority in that situation. The concept of legitimacy as employed in this study involves some code or standard internalized (or at least accepted) by the individual, by virtue of



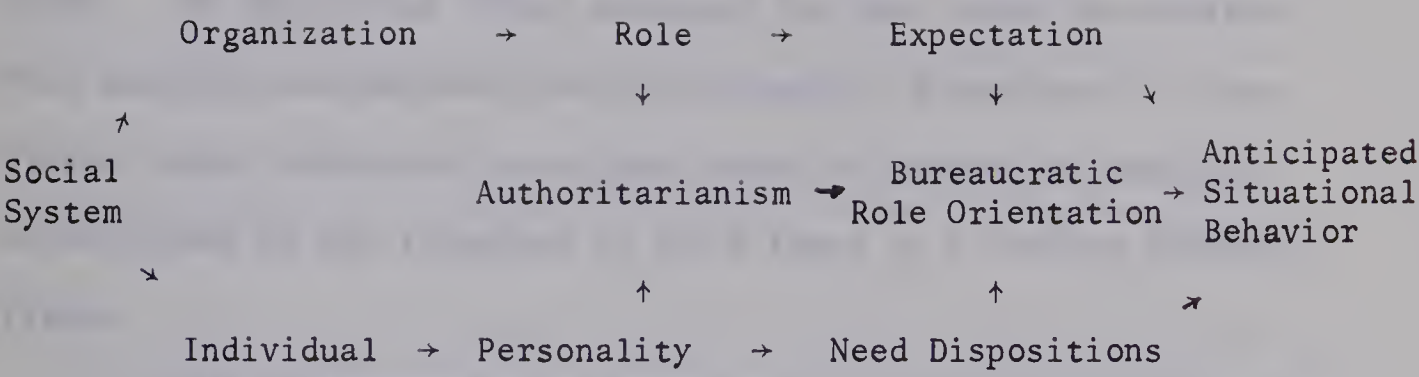


FIGURE 4

AUTHORITARIANISM AND BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION

AS INTERVENING VARIABLES IN THE SOCIAL BEHAVIOR MODEL





which the external agent can assert his power with a maximum degree of acceptance.

In any given situation, different individuals may legitimate a superordinate's communication on different motivational bases. The underlying theory advanced for this study has posited that certain need-dispositions or personality dimensions will predispose some individuals more than others to conform to explicit expectations in any situation in which there is a visible authority figure.

This study made use of hypothetical conflict incidents, in which the teacher respondent was projected into a situation involving an anticipated conflict between the role expectations enunciated by a superordinate and those which he held himself. The direction of anticipated resolution of the conflict should, according to this theory, bear some relationship to the role-relevant personality dimensions which predispose an individual to perceive the expectation as legitimate or illegitimate, and to comply or not comply with the superordinate's directive.

The conflict incidents used in this study were drawn from actual cases reported by teachers in their official organ, *The ATA Magazine*. Correspondents had sought the opinion of their professional association on both the legality and the appropriateness of the principal's behavior in each instance cited. The six conflict incidents involved the following areas of teacher-principal disagreement:



1. The right of the principal to require each staff member to accept responsibility for student extra-curricular activities.
2. The right of the principal to require a change in the instructional methods which a teacher judged to be satisfactory.
3. The right of the principal to reassign a pupil to another classroom because of parental complaint concerning the disciplinary measures taken by a teacher.
4. The right of a principal to establish hours during which teachers should be in the school building.
5. The right of a principal to require teachers to submit copies of term and final examinations prior to their administration to any class.
6. The right of a principal to approve all final examination grades and pupil promotions, and to change them in accordance with overall school achievement.

In order to test for relationships between authoritarian orientations of teacher respondents and their perceived legitimacy of and anticipated compliance with the principal's positional authority in each instance, four research hypotheses were drawn:

- 5.0: For each hypothetical conflict incident, there is a significant difference in the perceived legitimacy of the imposition of the principal's hierarchical authority among male teachers categorized as "high", "moderate", and "low" in authoritarianism.
- 5.1: For each hypothetical conflict incident, there is a significant difference in the anticipated compliance with the principal's request among male teachers categorized as "high", "moderate", and "low" in authoritarianism.
- 5.2: For each hypothetical conflict incident, there is a significant difference in the perceived legitimacy of the imposition of the principal's hierarchical authority among female teachers categorized as "high", "moderate", and "low" in authoritarianism.
- 5.3: For each hypothetical conflict incident, there is a significant difference in the anticipated compliance with the principal's request among female teachers categorized as "high", "moderate", and "low" in authoritarianism.





All hypotheses involved an overall score of authoritarianism among respondents and a dichotomized score of "legitimate" or "illegitimate" and "compliance" or "non-compliance" according to the responses given to each incident. The total authoritarianism scores of all teacher respondents were rank-ordered from highest to lowest, with the cutting points established to divide the scores into three roughly equal groups designated "high", "moderate", and "low". A computer program calculated a frequency distribution together with proportions of the responses concerning legitimacy and compliance for each group, and a 3 x 2 contingency table was prepared for each item. A chi-square test of independence for each contingency table using two degrees of freedom was obtained through the same computer program.

The chi-square test can be appropriately applied where data are comprised of paired observations of two nominal variables. The test provides a measure of the discrepancy between the observed cell frequencies in the contingency table and those expected on the basis of independence. The null hypothesis assuming no association between the variables can be rejected when obtained values of  $\chi^2$  exceed established critical values (1, p. 200-201).

The findings for each of the four hypotheses relating to research problem 5.0 are set out below. Discussion relative to the findings is combined, rather than presented for each hypothesis tested.

Findings for Hypothesis 5.0: This hypothesis predicted a significant association between level of authoritarian orientation



expressed by male teachers and their perceived legitimacy of the imposition of a principal's hierarchical authority.

The degree of association between the two variables was significantly different from zero in only two instances (items 2 and 4). With the four other items there was random association only. The research hypothesis, only partially supported, was therefore rejected, and the null hypothesis assuming independence of the two variables was accepted. These data are summarized in Table XXXIV.

Findings for Hypothesis 5.1: This hypothesis was designed to determine whether there was a significant association between male authoritarian orientation and anticipated compliance or non-compliance with positional authority. A significant association was found for the same two items which supported Hypothesis 5.0, a finding which is logically consistent. For the remaining four items, there was no significant association. The research hypothesis was therefore rejected, and the null hypothesis accepted. These data are presented in Table XXXV.

Findings for Hypothesis 5.2: This hypothesis was designed to test for the same relationships as Hypothesis 5.0, but with female teachers. The chi-square tests revealed no significant relationships for any item, and there was no indication of other than random association between authoritarianism and anticipated behavior. The research hypothesis was accordingly rejected, and the null hypothesis accepted. These data are presented in Table XXXVI.

Findings for Hypothesis 5.3: This hypothesis was designed





TABLE XXXIV

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES, PROPORTIONS, CHI-SQUARE VALUES, AND SIGNIFICANCE OF ASSOCIATION BETWEEN LEVEL OF AUTHORITARIANISM AMONG MALE TEACHERS AND THEIR PERCEPTIONS OF LEGITIMACY IN SIX HYPOTHETICAL CONFLICT INCIDENTS

N=258

Conflict Incident	Conflict issue	Perception	Level of Authoritarianism		Proportion	$\chi^2$	p*
			High N=85	Moderate N=86	Low N=87		
1	Extra-curricular activities	Legitimate	65	54	62	.702	.20
		Illegitimate	20	32	25	3.898	
2	Change of teaching method	Legitimate	58	69	65	.705	.05
		Illegitimate	27	17	32	6.350	
3	Reassignment of a pupil	Legitimate	69	64	67	.775	.30
		Illegitimate	16	22	20	1.140	
4	Establishment of hours	Legitimate	51	63	43	.609	.01
		Illegitimate	34	23	44	.391	
5	Submission of final exams	Legitimate	64	64	63	.740	.60
		Illegitimate	21	22	24	.260	
6	Changing of marks and grades	Legitimate	42	46	42	.504	.50
		Illegitimate	43	40	45	.496	

\*A value of  $\chi^2 = 5.99$  required for significance at .05 level with 2 degrees of freedom.





TABLE XXXV

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES, PROPORTIONS, CHI-SQUARE VALUES, AND SIGNIFICANCE OF ASSOCIATION BETWEEN LEVEL OF AUTHORITARIANISM AMONG MALE TEACHERS AND THEIR ANTICIPATED BEHAVIOR IN SIX HYPOTHETICAL CONFLICT INCIDENTS

N=258

Conflict Incident	Conflict Issue	Anticipated behavior	Level of Authoritarianism		Proportion	$\chi^2$	P*
			High N=85	Moderate N=86			
1	Extra-curricular activities	Compliance	69	64	.760	1.978	.35
		Non-Compliance	16	22	.240		
2	Change of teaching method	Compliance	60	59	.632	9.035	.02
		Non-Compliance	25	27	.368		
3	Reassignment of a pupil	Compliance	71	67	.791	1.637	.50
		Non-Compliance	14	19	.209		
4	Establishment of hours	Compliance	61	63	.671	6.887	.05
		Non-Compliance	24	23	.329		
5	Submission of final exams	Compliance	69	68	.810	.3849	.85
		Non-compliance	16	18	.190		
6	Changing of Marks and grades	Compliance	48	51	.574	.1985	.90
		Non-compliance	37	35	.426		

\*A value of  $\chi^2 = 5.99$  required for significance at .05 level with 2 degrees of freedom.



TABLE XXXVI

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES, PROPORTIONS, CHI-SQUARE VALUES, AND SIGNIFICANCE OF ASSOCIATION BETWEEN LEVEL OF AUTHORITARIANISM AMONG FEMALE TEACHERS AND THEIR PERCEPTIONS OF LEGITIMACY IN SIX HYPOTHETICAL CONFLICT INCIDENTS

N=455

Conflict incident	Conflict issue	Perception	Level of Authoritarianism		Proportion	$\chi^2$	P*
			High N=153	Moderate N=147	Low N=155		
1	Extra-curricular activities	Legitimate Illegitimate	100 53	95 52	105 50	.659 .341 .360	.85
2	Change of teaching method	Legitimate Illegitimate	113 40	112 35	109 46	.734 .266 1.355	.50
3	Reassignment of a pupil	Legitimate Illegitimate	119 34	124 23	122 33	.802 .198 2.381	.30
4	Establishment of hours	Legitimate Illegitimate	105 48	94 53	90 65	.635 .365 3.726	.20
5	Submission of final exams	Legitimate Illegitimate	117 36	109 38	107 48	.732 .268 2.274	.30
6	Changing of marks and grades	Legitimate Illegitimate	71 82	65 82	61 94	.453 .567 1.634	.50

\*A value of  $\chi^2 = 5.99$  required for significance at .05 level with 2 degrees of freedom.





to test for the same relationships as Hypothesis 5.1, but with female teachers. No significant relationships were found. The research hypothesis was rejected, and the null hypothesis was accepted. These data are presented in Table XXXVII.

Discussion for Hypotheses 5.0, 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3: The almost complete absence of significant relationships between level of authoritarianism and perceived legitimacy and anticipated compliance may be attributed to several reasons. A major factor may have been that the measures of overall authoritarianism were too gross, and that an undue proportion of score variance was due to measurement error. Distinctions between "high", "moderate", and "low" groups would therefore not be precise, and there would be a masking of relationships which might be found with more refined instrumentation. The hypothetical conflict incidents were an exploratory element in the study. The items used had face validity only, and had not been pre-tested for discriminating power among a normative sample of teachers. The issues selected may not have been those on which substantial divergence of expectations actually exist among rank and file teachers.

A methodological limitation in the study already noted (*supra*, p. 7) is that orientations and attitudes bear no one-to-one correspondence with observed behavior, nor in this instance to preferred behavior. The process of legitimation is a complex one, and while personality dimensions have been demonstrated to be important factors in this process, there are other complex intervening variables such as reference group norms and perceived positive



TABLE XXXVII

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES, PROPORTIONS, CHI-SQUARE VALUES, AND SIGNIFICANCE OF  
ASSOCIATION BETWEEN LEVEL OF AUTHORITARIANISM AMONG FEMALE TEACHERS AND  
THEIR ANTICIPATED BEHAVIOR IN SIX HYPOTHETICAL CONFLICT INCIDENTS

N=455

Conflict incident	Conflict issue	Anticipated behavior	Level of Authoritarianism		Proportion	$\chi^2$	P*
			High N=153	Moderate N=147	Low N=155		
1	Extra-curricular activities	Compliance Non-compliance	120 33	121 26	118 37	.789 .211 1.764	.40
2	Change of teaching method	Compliance Non-compliance	116 37	115 32	104 51	.736 .264 5.387	.07
3	Reassignment of a pupil	Compliance Non-compliance	127 26	126 21	121 34	.822 .178 3.120	.20
4	Establishment of hours	Compliance Non-compliance	120 33	117 30	111 44	.765 .235 3.159	.20
5	Submission of final exams	Compliance Non-compliance	127 16	133 14	131 24	.881 .119 3.001	.20
6	Changing of marks and grades	Compliance Non-compliance	96 57	89 58	85 70	.593 .407 2.125	.10

\*A value of  $\chi^2 = 5.99$  required for significance at .05 level with 2 degrees of freedom.





and negative sanctions which are also operative. Some support for this conjecture was found in the comments which many respondents included as reactions to the questionnaire items. At least thirty females, for example, indicated that in effect the principal had "the right" to make those decisions he thought necessary, and that they would "go along with established policy". It is clear that the influence of personal variables upon both perceptions and behavior must operate within the prescribed boundaries which constitute the realities of a defined organizational role such as that of the classroom teacher.

A somewhat surprising finding was the high degree of consensus among both male and female teachers that the principal's behavior in each of the conflict incidents was perceived as legitimate, and that a substantial proportion would generally comply in each instance. The "autonomy norms" of teachers had presumably been violated in each incident, but the imposition of the principal's organizational authority was generally acceptable. The degree of deference to the principal's rank was unexpectedly high, in the light of the assumed cruciality of some of the issues involved.

#### Analysis of Research Problem 6.0

"Is there a relationship between the degree of bureaucratic role orientation among teachers and their perception of the legitimacy of an anticipated compliance with positional authority?"

The findings by MacKay (2, p. 163) and Moeller (3, p. 147) indicated that teachers were generally positively oriented towards the Weberian model of bureaucracy as an "ideal" form of organization.





In any empirical testing, a variety of attitudes and orientations with respect to any variable will be found. One research interest of the present study lay in the possibility of determining differences in orientations towards an organizational structure in order to predict differential behavior in common situations. Consistent with the general theoretical framework advanced in Chapter III, those members expressing generally positive orientations towards a bureaucratic mode of organization could be expected to give a positive assessment of the elements which impinge upon them, as these would generally be in line with their own expectations. Conversely, those with less strongly held bureaucratic role orientations would be expected to express less favorable reactions to those same organizational elements. Individual role orientations, therefore, represent important factors in determining whether individuals will feel supported or frustrated by the organizational structure. A major premise of this study was that the authority system, with its explication through centralized decision-making and formalized rules and procedures, represented the crucial element of any organization. For each conflict incident to which the respondents reacted, the principal represented the personification of organizational authority. The legitimacy of the imposition of that authority in that situation would be expected to be differentially perceived by teachers holding differing role conceptions.

In order to test for relationships between bureaucratic role orientations and perceived legitimacy and anticipated compliance, four research hypotheses were drawn:



- 6.0: For each hypothetical conflict incident, there is a significant difference in the perceived legitimacy of the principal's hierarchical authority among male teachers categorized as "high", "moderate", and "low" in bureaucratic role orientation.
- 6.1: For each hypothetical conflict incident, there is a significant difference in the anticipated compliance with the principal's request among male teachers categorized as "high", "moderate", and "low" in bureaucratic role orientation.
- 6.2: For each hypothetical conflict incident, there is a significant difference in the perceived legitimacy of the imposition of the principal's hierarchical authority among female teachers categorized as "high", "moderate", and "low" in bureaucratic role orientation.
- 6.3: For each hypothetical conflict incident, there is a significant difference in the anticipated compliance with the principal's request among female teachers categorized as "high", "moderate", and "low" in bureaucratic role orientation.

All hypotheses were tested in the manner already described for research problem 5.0. Chi-square tests for the resulting contingency tables were calculated according to the procedures already outlined.

The findings for each of the four hypotheses relating to research problem 6.0 are set out below, and the discussion is reserved until all findings are reported.

Findings for Hypothesis 6.0: This hypothesis predicted a significant association between bureaucratic role orientation among male teachers and perceived legitimacy of the imposition of the principal's hierarchical authority. A significant relationship was found for three of the items (1, 2, and 5), and only chance association was found with the remaining three. The research hypothesis found only partial support. These findings are presented







in Table XXXVIII.

Findings for Hypothesis 6.1: This hypothesis predicted a significant association between bureaucratic role orientation and anticipated compliance in the same group. Values of  $\chi^2$  exceeding the critical value were obtained on four items (1, 2, 5, and 6) and a significance level of .06 was obtained on another (item 3). The research hypothesis was substantially supported. These data are presented in Table XXXIX.

Findings for Hypothesis 6.2: This hypothesis predicted the same type of association as hypothesis 6.0, but among female teachers. Significant relationship existed for all but one incident (item 1). The research hypothesis was accepted as demonstrably supported. These data are summarized in Table XL.

Findings for Hypothesis 6.3: The hypothesis predicted the same type of association as hypothesis 6.1, but with female teachers. Significant association levels occurred on four items (1, 2, 3, and 5) with directional support appearing for the remaining two items. The research hypothesis was substantially supported. These data are presented in Table XLI.

Discussion for Hypotheses 6.0, 6.1, 6.2, and 6.3: With the exception of Hypothesis 6.0 (which had only partial support), all research hypotheses received substantial support in the empirical findings. There was a demonstrable relationship between degree of bureaucratic role orientation among male and female teachers and their perceptions of legitimacy and their anticipated behavior in hypothetical conflict situations. For all incidents the distribu-



TABLE XXXVIII

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES, PROPORTIONS, CHI-SQUARE VALUES, AND SIGNIFICANCE OF  
ASSOCIATION BETWEEN LEVEL OF BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION AMONG MALE TEACHERS  
AND THEIR PERCEPTIONS OF LEGITIMACY IN SIX HYPOTHETICAL CONFLICT SITUATIONS

N=258

Conflict incident	Conflict issue	Perception	Level of Bureaucratic Role Orientation			Proportion	$\chi^2$	p*
			High N=84	Moderate N=91	Low N=83			
1	Extra-curricular activities	Legitimate	65	66	50	.702	6.236	.05
		Illegitimate	19	25	33	.298		
2	Change of teaching method	Legitimate	66	68	48	.705	9.826	.01
		Illegitimate	18	23	35	.295		
3	Reassignment of a pupil	Legitimate	69	72	59	.775	3.136	.20
		Illegitimate	15	19	24	.225		
4	Establishment of hours	Legitimate	53	58	46	.609	1.523	.50
		Illegitimate	31	33	37	.391		
5	Submission of final exams	Legitimate	69	73	49	.740	14.395	.001
		Illegitimate	15	18	34	.260		
6	Changing of marks and grades	Legitimate	45	48	37	.504	1.664	.50
		Illegitimate	39	43	46	.496		

\*A value of  $\chi^2 = 5.99$  required for significance at .05 level with 2 degrees of freedom.





TABLE XXXIX

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES, PROPORTIONS, CHI-SQUARE VALUES, AND SIGNIFICANCE OF  
ASSOCIATION BETWEEN LEVEL OF BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION AMONG MALE TEACHERS  
AND THEIR ANTICIPATED BEHAVIOR IN SIX HYPOTHETICAL CONFLICT SITUATIONS

N=258

Conflict incident	Conflict issue	Anticipated behavior	Level of Bureaucratic Role Orientation			Proportion	$\chi^2$	p*
			High	Moderate	Low			
			N=84	N=91	N=83			
1	Extra-curricular activities	Compliance Non-compliance	69 15	73 18	54 29	.760 .240	8.065	.02
2	Change of teaching method	Compliance Non-compliance	69 15	57 34	37 46	.632 .368	25.341	.001
3	Reassignment of a pupil	Compliance Non-compliance	67 17	78 13	59 24	.791 .209	5.650	.06
4	Establishment of hours	Compliance Non-compliance	62 22	58 33	53 30	.671 .329	2.573	.30
5	Submission of final exams	Compliance Non-compliance	74 10	79 12	56 27	.810 .190	14.623	.001
6	Changing of marks and grades	Compliance Non-compliance	53 31	58 33	37 46	.574 .426	8.187	.02

\*A value of  $\chi^2 = 5.99$  required for significance at .05 level with 2 degrees of freedom.





TABLE XL

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES, PROPORTIONS, CHI-SQUARE VALUES, AND SIGNIFICANCE OF ASSOCIATION BETWEEN LEVEL OF BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION AMONG FEMALE TEACHERS AND THEIR PERCEPTIONS OF LEGITIMACY IN SIX HYPOTHETICAL CONFLICT SITUATIONS

N=455

Conflict incident	Conflict issue	Perception	Level of Bureaucratic Role Orientation		Proportion	$\chi^2$	p*
			High N=147	Moderate N=162	Low N=146		
1	Extra-curricular activities	Legitimate Illegitimate	98 49	111 51	91 55	.659 .341	1.362 .50
2	Change of teaching method	Legitimate Illegitimate	123 24	116 46	95 51	.734 .266	13.407 .001
3	Reassignment of a pupil	Legitimate Illegitimate	126 24	121 41	118 28	.802 .198	5.951 .05
4	Establishment of hours	Legitimate Illegitimate	99 48	110 52	80 66	.635 .365	7.068 .05
5	Submission of final exams	Legitimate Illegitimate	125 22	115 47	93 53	.732 .268	17.611 .001
6	Changing of marks and grades	Legitimate Illegitimate	73 74	78 84	46 100	.433 .567	12.244 .01

\*A value of  $\chi^2 = 5.99$  required for significance at .05 level with 2 degrees of freedom.



TABLE XLI

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES, PROPORTIONS, CHI-SQUARE VALUES, AND SIGNIFICANCE OF ASSOCIATION BETWEEN LEVEL OF BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION AMONG FEMALE TEACHERS AND THEIR ANTICIPATED BEHAVIOR IN SIX HYPOTHETICAL CONFLICT SITUATIONS

N=455

Conflict incident	Conflict issue	Anticipated behavior	Level of Bureaucratic Role Orientatation				Proportion	χ <sup>2</sup>	P*
			High		Low				
			N=147	Moderate N=162	N=146				
1	Extra-curricular activities	Compliance Non-compliance	118 29	139 23	102 44	.789 .211	11.965	.01	
2	Change of teaching method	Compliance Non-compliance	129 18	117 45	89 57	.736 .264	27.342	.001	
3	Reassignment of a pupil	Compliance Non-compliance	133 14	133 29	108 38	.822 .178	13.636	.001	
4	Establishment of hours	Compliance Non-compliance	120 27	125 37	103 43	.765 .235	5.068	.08	
5	Submission of final exams	Compliance Non-compliance	137 10	144 18	120 26	.881 .119	8.620	.02	
6	Changing of marks and grades	Compliance Non-compliance	93 54	98 64	79 67	.593 .407	2.684	.30	

\*A value of  $\chi^2 = 5.99$  required for significance at .05 level with 2 degrees of freedom.





tion of responses was consistent with the underlying theory: respondents categorized as "high" were more inclined to perceive the principal's behavior as legitimate and to anticipate compliance with the request than was the case with those categorized as "low" in bureaucratic role orientation. Of the six conflict incidents, one item (number 4) produced only one significant relationship in the tests conducted, but all others revealed significant associations in two to four instances.

An individual who perceives a communication as legitimate and complies with it demonstrates behavior which is consistent with personal norms of appropriateness, as does the individual who refuses to comply with a communication he perceives as illegitimate. As the concept is used in this study, "authority" exists in the first instance but not in the second. There is no one-to-one correspondence between perceived legitimacy and compliance, however, since behavior in accordance with superordinate expectations may well be a power relationship (*supra*, p. 14). Other modes of accommodation are possible than the dichotomous choice provided in the questionnaire, and as such the findings reported have obvious weaknesses for drawing inferences to behavioral situations. All analyses were based on group scores, and there was no attempt to analyze paired responses for congruence with respect to each incident. Numerous respondents who judged the principal's behavior to be illegitimate wrote qualifying comments indicating reasons why it would be expedient to comply. A minority in this group indicated they would comply, but would work to



effect a change in policy.

A ratio of approximately 7:3 of positive responses to both the legitimacy and compliance dimensions for each incident was noted for both groups. On only one item, number 6, where the issue involved the changing of marks and grades, were the proportions approximately equal (Tables XXXVIII-XLI).

The generally high proportion of positive responses may have been found because the incidents involved matters in which teachers typically support organizational norms as enunciated by the principal. Another possibility should not be overlooked in drawing inferences from these data. There is an observed "role selection" phenomenon (4, p. 16) in the type of questionnaire used for data collection which may have distorted the validity of obtained measures. If any significant proportion of respondents felt that it was considered "proper" to give deference to the principal's views in any situation, their stated choices would represent "yeasaying" responses, and not indicators of individual orientations. Significance levels therefore would be spuriously high.

When respondents are asked to react to behavioral cues, an investigator cannot be sure whether the choices made are consistent with personal norms or selected in accordance with some externally defined "proper" behavior. The only control for this possible contamination of the data was the assured anonymity and confidential treatment of all information supplied by the respondents.

The finding of empirical support for the underlying theory





using the Bureaucratic Role Orientation Scale indicated the discriminating power of the instrument with large samples. The theoretically consistent findings using the hypothetical conflict incidents was taken as justification for this exploratory element in the study, and suggested that a refinement of this approach may have value in discovering other relationships between individual orientations and manifestations of observed behavior.

#### SUMMARY

This chapter reported the findings relating to the final three research problems set out for the study. A significant association was found between respondents categorized "high" in bureaucratic role orientation and the career satisfaction in teaching among both male and female teachers. No significant association was found between overall level of authoritarian orientation among female teachers and their perceptions of the legitimacy of or anticipated behavior in any of the six hypothetical conflict incidents. A significant association was found among males for both legitimacy and compliance for only two incidents. There was substantial support for the hypothesized significant relationship between level of bureaucratic role orientation among male and female teachers and their perceptions of legitimacy and anticipated behavior in the hypothetical conflict situations.





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## CHAPTER VII

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

#### SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

##### The Nature of the Study

This study was designed to investigate several posited relationships between authoritarian orientations among teachers and their orientations towards a role in a school organization structured on a variant of the Weberian model of bureaucracy. Differing orientations for each variable were examined among various categories of personnel. Relationships between role orientation and career satisfaction were investigated, as were relationships between both variables and the career orientations of the teacher respondents. As an empirical test of association between orientations and predispositions toward overt behavior, an exploratory portion of the study investigated relationships between both authoritarian and bureaucratic role orientations and teacher perceptions of legitimacy and anticipated compliance in six hypothetical conflict situations.

##### The Conceptual Framework

The underlying theory on which the study was based drew largely on basic concepts in the social behavior model developed by Getzels and Guba from the General Theory of Action proposed by Parsons and Shils. The interrelatedness of the cultural system, social system, and personality system posited in these writings served as a basis for relating elements of personality theory with





those of role theory, and to hypothesize predispositions toward certain forms of overt behavior. Insights drawn from other psychological and sociological theorists were also applied to set out the rationale for the study undertaken. Of central concern was the concept of authority as a form of individually legitimated power. Emphasis was placed on the process of social enculturation as a prime factor in development of individual norms and personal conceptions of the appropriate basis of authority.

A survey of related literature indicated that not only was the authority system a crucial element in the structure of educational and other organizations, but that the legitimacy of superordinate directives was essential for optimum effectiveness and efficiency. Empirical studies involving school organizations called attention to the significance of the principal as the bearer of organizational expectations, and pointed out that the perceived manner in which he used the hierarchical power of his position had differential outcomes among the teachers affected.

#### Analysis of the Problem

Presthus has suggested that reactions to authority represent the critical variable in individual accommodation to organizational demands. The basic research problems were to determine whether personality variables relevant to conceptions of authority in general (authoritarianism) would have significant relationships with organizational role-taking expressed in ideational and behavioral terms, and also whether these personality dimensions and role conceptions had significant relationships with anticipated behavior.



Six research problems were set out, and twenty hypotheses were drawn for empirical testing.

### Instrumentation and Methodology

Instrumentation. The questionnaire developed for the study contained four sections: (1) an authoritarianism scale, (2) a role orientation scale, (3) a conflict incident section, and (4) an identification section.

Data concerning authoritarian orientation was obtained by using those subscales of the California F Scale which Presthus had proposed as appropriate to measure attitudes toward authority which had organizational significance.

A measure of role orientation was obtained by employing the Bureaucratic Employee Role Orientation Scale developed by Corwin for use in schools in Ohio and Michigan. Terminological differences between American and Alberta school systems were removed, but the concepts were not altered.

Six conflict incidents were presented to determine predispositions towards overt behavior. All incidents had been submitted to the official organ of The Alberta Teachers' Association as issues in teacher-principal relationships. These items represented nominal data only.

The identification section provided background information for grouping respondents for the analyses undertaken.

The Pilot Study. As an initial test of the theory, a pilot study was carried out involving 75 education students in two levels of program at the University of Alberta. Both authoritarianism and





bureaucratic role orientation scales were administered, and scores analyzed to test for some of the relationships which were hypothesized in the present study. Discriminations among the respondents in the accidental sample were found with both scales, and a highly significant level of association between the two variables was indicated.

Data collection. The data from teachers were gathered through a quota sampling plan. A sample of schools was selected from the Department of Education list of operating public schools, and restricted to those having twenty or more teachers under a male principal in centers where Grades 1 - 12 were offered. An additional sub-sample of forty-five principals of schools having fifteen or more teachers was also drawn. The final sample included 713 teachers and 78 principals drawn from 41 schools in 35 systems, all in counties, school divisions, or school districts in centers of 30,000 population or less. The administration of the questionnaire was conducted by mail, with a response of 78.3 per cent.

Statistical treatment. All data were coded and transcribed to IBM cards, and all analyses were carried out through the use of card sorter and computer. Product moment correlations,  $t$  and  $F$  tests were conducted with scale scores. Where significant  $F$  ratios occurred, the differences on ordered means were compared by the Newman-Keuls test. Chi-square tests of independence were used with the nominal data relating to conflict incidents. In all tests a significance level of .05 was maintained for the rejection of a null hypothesis or acceptance of a research hypothesis.





## FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary of Research Findings

The first research problem was concerned with differences in authoritarian orientations among male principals and teachers, and female teachers. Principals were found to have significantly lower mean scores than male teachers oriented towards teaching as a career, and not higher means as predicted on the basis of the formulation of Presthus. No significant differences were found between mean scores of principals and males oriented to an administrative career, nor between the means of teaching-oriented males and females. The null hypothesis was not rejected in either instance. The education level of the respondents was not by itself a factor in accounting for significant differences in authoritarianism, but there were directional indications that education level may have produced an inverse influence on total scores.

The second research problem dealt with differences in bureaucratic role orientations among principals and male and female teachers. The prediction of higher mean scores for principals than for teaching-oriented males was not confirmed, but principals were found to have significantly higher overall scores than males oriented towards administration, contrary to the expectation of no difference. There were no overall significant differences in mean scores among either male or female teachers categorized by level of education, and these null hypotheses were not rejected. There were directional indications that extremes in differences of education level had an inverse effect on scores.



A related analysis comparing principals with moderate (bachelor's degree or less) and advanced (five or six years of university preparation) indicated that those with advanced education had significantly lower scores on the dimension measuring the desirability of standardization, and on the overall score. Another related analysis indicated that females had significantly higher mean scores than males on each dimension of the BRO Scale.

The third research problem was concerned with associations between the dimensions of authoritarianism and bureaucratic role orientation. The prediction of positive relationships among all subscales and total scales was confirmed at a high level of significance. Three further hypotheses predicted higher mean BRO scores for principals, male and female teachers respectively categorized as "high" and "low" in authoritarianism, *i.e.*, between the upper and lower thirds of rank-ordered total scores. All of the predicted differences were confirmed at high levels of significance.

The fourth research problem dealt with relationships between bureaucratic role orientations among male and female teachers and their self reports of general career satisfaction. The prediction of higher mean scores among satisfied than among dissatisfied teachers was confirmed for each group.

The fifth research problem was concerned with relationships between level of authoritarianism and the perceived legitimacy of and anticipated compliance with superordinate direction in six hypothetical conflict incidents. A predicted positive relationship







between "high", "moderate", and "low" authoritarianism and frequency of responses indicating legitimacy and compliance was partially supported in the male group of teachers, but there was no support for this prediction among female teachers.

The sixth research problem dealt with the relationships between level of bureaucratic role orientation and the perceived legitimacy of and anticipated compliance with superordinate directives in the hypothetical conflict incidents. The predicted significant positive associations between "high", "moderate", and "low" BRO scores and response frequencies indicating legitimacy and compliance were substantially confirmed with both male and female teacher groups.

#### Conclusions from the Research Findings

Within the limits set by the nature of the sample and possible contaminating elements in the data, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. The hypothesis suggested by Presthus of a relationship between certain authoritarian dimensions and "upward mobility" was not valid for the organizations studied. A more complex relationship of intervening variables predisposing individuals to select certain career patterns is operative than was examined in this study. The negative findings reported do not invalidate the hypothesis drawn from an analysis of large bureaucracies, since the organizations under study were not directly comparable with those Presthus described.

2. The significant positive relationships between the



dimensions of authoritarianism and bureaucratic role orientation indicated a strong functional relationship between the two variables. The first was taken as a cluster of core personality attributes, and the second a manifestation of personality in a role-taking situation. Teachers who were inclined to agree with authoritative statements of attitude and belief were also disposed to give a positive evaluation of a school organization structured on a bureaucratic model.

3. Significant differences in authoritarianism were not related to sex in the general teacher sample, but tended to be positively associated with a sub-group of female teachers holding elementary positions. Levels of authoritarianism were negatively but not significantly related to levels of education among the respondents.

4. Significant differences in bureaucratic role orientation tended to be associated with female rather than male teachers, at the elementary rather than high school level; to be positively associated with length of teaching experience for females, and career satisfaction among male and females; and negatively but not significantly related to years of teacher education, except in the case of principals with moderate and advanced education.

5. The level of authoritarianism as measured by the F Scale was not a useful predictor of perceived legitimacy or anticipated compliance in hypothetical conflict incidents in which the imposition of hierarchical positional authority was clearly visible.





6. The degree of bureaucratic role orientation reported by both male and female teachers was a significant discriminating variable in identifying respondents who indicated perceived legitimacy and anticipated compliance in hypothetical situations in which hierarchical positional authority was exercised.

7. The F Scale as a measure of authoritarianism, while it yielded a normal distribution of scores within an acceptable range, was probably not a suitable instrument to employ with a group of teachers which has mean levels of education considerably higher than the general population. Actual orientations consistent with the personality construct were masked to an unknown extent by the education level of respondents and the social desirability of some of the items.

## IMPLICATIONS

### Implications for Further Research

The accommodations of individuals to institutional pressures have consequences for the achievement of organizational goals. This exploratory study found a number of significant relationships between personality dimensions and role orientations which have organizational relevance. The relationship of the individual as a cluster of personality dimensions to various elements of organizational structure can be further investigated using alternate sets of instruments than those employed for this study. The Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, for example, is designed to measure fifteen relatively independent personality variables in the form of manifest needs. Weatherley reported an





investigation involving 118 male and 79 female college students in which he related F Scale scores to dimensions of the Edwards Scale. He found significant positive correlations between F scores and EPPS dimensions indicating need for Order and Dominance, and significant negative correlations with needs for Autonomy and Intraception (2, p. 163). All of these relationships are consistent with the underlying theory of this study. The Edwards Scale, moreover, uses forced-choice responses between paired items equated for social desirability, and overcomes some of the methodological weaknesses of the F Scale in terms of response set or social acceptance of certain items. An investigation using this personality instrument and the BRO Scale or an equivalent measure might uncover other relationships between personality and organizational role orientations.

The concept of authoritarianism as it relates to various types of opinions, attitudes, and behavior continues to generate speculation among social scientists. To date the construct has been largely defined by the F Scale, which has demonstrated methodological limitations. In the sample studied, for example, three male respondents, all with degree level education, did not complete the scale, commenting that in effect it was "too far out". An alternate operational definition of the construct in the form of another scale is called for.

The several aspects of authoritarianism were originally conceived by Adorno and his associates as loosely cohering parts of a syndrome. This study, in common with many others, held these



subparts to be relatively independent variables. A more useful approach would be a multivariate design, which would provide for the identification of various correlates of authoritarianism. The prototype "authoritarian" is no doubt rare, and the moderate level scores encountered in the sample in this study indicated latitude for a wide variety of responses in the role-taking situations provided in the hypothetical conflict incidents.

Since administration is ultimately concerned with behavior, a relationship between the personal variables of the individual and his role performance is desirable for drawing inferences for practice. The theoretically consistent findings using the hypothetical conflict incident technique suggests that this method may have value in discovering relationships between basic personal orientations and behavioral outcomes. The development of a conflict incident scale based on relevant issues (or alternately a scale involving conflicting expectations for a particular organizational role), and relating it to selected personality variables would provide useful insights.

A more intensive investigation of demographic variables and their relationship with the dimensions used in this study might identify other variables or combinations of variables associated with the attitudes examined. Ethnic factors, age, various elements of social background, and employment patterns were not examined in this study. These factors have been demonstrated to influence attitude formation in the general population, and an examination of these and other variables as correlates of particular personal-







ity attributes or role orientations among educational personnel would provide useful descriptive data.

### Implications for Educational Administration

It is axiomatic that the ultimate justification for any study in the field of administration is that it will yield new inputs which contribute to the achievement of organizational goals, and consistent with the pervading social ethos, also promote satisfaction among the members affected. To this end the administrator requires a knowledge of the variables which have organizational relevance.

The personalities of teachers, like that of the principal, are situational "givens" in any school, unless system policies provide for special selection on other bases than certification level or other credentials of qualification. The melding of a collectivity of personalities into a task-oriented work group is the formal leadership function of the organization's head. The principal who administers his organization in accordance with his own standards of appropriateness, or "by the book" of system rules and procedures may be regarded variously as an "authoritarian" or a "bureaucrat". The limited evidence provided by this study is further confirmation for the need of a sensitivity by superordinates to the varying dispositions and orientations of subordinates in order to avoid the alienation and its attendant dysfunctions that accompanies the perceived habitual reliance on positional power as a motivator.

Inasmuch as personality, role orientations, and role behavior



are dynamically interrelated, the findings have implications for the nature of formal leadership required to move an organization to the achievement of its goals. The study identified a sub-group of teachers in elementary schools which more than any other showed a positive evaluation of the organizational model on which the role orientation scales were based. The implication here is that a directive form of leadership is more likely to be both effective and efficient within elementary schools than at any other level of school organization.

There are other implications for the office of the principal which is the prime bearer of organizational expectations. Clearly it is difficult for any leader to be able to function well in both goal-directive and group-satisfaction dimensions, and there is evidence of a dual leadership pattern in organizations (1). There can be only one organizational head, however, and therefore the methods by which potential organizational superordinates are identified, selected, and trained have important long-term consequences. The place of interpersonal competence (which is a variant definition of interpersonal sensitivity) as well as technical competence in the appointment of principals is once again recognized.

### Concluding Statement

This study examined three interacting variables: personality, orientation, and accommodation to the authority dimension of an organization. The model under study was a variant of the Weberian model of bureaucracy, in which the ultimate center of power is vested in hierarchical position. With increasing levels



of education among teachers such a model will need adjustment to take into account changing conceptions among members of the appropriate bases of organizational authority.





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## APPENDIX A

Correlation Matrices for Items, Subscales,  
and Scale for Authoritarianism and Bureau-  
cratic Role Orientation Scales



TABLE XLII

PRODUCT-MOMENT INTERCORRELATIONS OF ITEMS, SUBSCALE,  
AND TOTAL SCALE FOR AUTHORITARIANISM SUBSCALE I

N=791

Items	1	6	19	23*	Sub- Scale	Total Scale
1	1.000	.211	.190	-.025	.618	.556
6		1.000	.146	-.019	.691	.487
19			1.000	-.020	.529	.514
23*				1.000	.189	.078
Subscale					1.000	.776
Total Scale						1.000

r = .131 significant at .05 level

r = .174 significant at .01 level

\*This item was deleted from all further analyses.

Key to Subscale:

I - Conventionalism





TABLE XLIII

PRODUCT-MOMENT INTERCORRELATIONS OF ITEMS, SUBSCALE,  
AND TOTAL SCALE FOR AUTHORITARIANISM SUBSCALE II

N=791

Item	2	4	5	12	13	24	25	Sub- Scale	Total Scale
2	1.000	.158	.296	.240	.139	.198	.137	.552	.559
4		1.000	.308	.120	.106	.178	.106	.516	.303
5			1.000	.201	.166	.202	.155	.647	.482
12				1.000	.200	.193	.188	.531	.456
13					1.000	.177	.109	.524	.457
24						1.000	.215	.549	.509
25							1.000	.415	.331
Subscale								1.000	.826
Total Scale									1.000

r = .154 significant at .05 level

r = .175 significant at .01 level

Key to Subscale:

II - Authoritarian Submission



TABLE XLIV

PRODUCT-MOMENT INTERCORRELATIONS OF ITEMS, SUBSCALE,  
AND TOTAL SCALE FOR AUTHORITARIANISM SUBSCALE III

N=791

Items	7	8	10	15	17	18	20	22	Sub- Scale	Total Scale
7	1.000	.294	.180	.164	.155	.258	.138	.136	.514	.486
8		1.000	.354	.251	.281	.296	.270	.222	.624	.633
10			1.000	.275	.300	.288	.161	.241	.570	.555
15				1.000	.309	.265	.233	.399	.635	.512
17					1.000	.369	.283	.283	.626	.572
18						1.000	.285	.258	.634	.532
20							1.000	.210	.545	.529
22								1.000	.569	.473
Subscale									1.000	.906
Total Scale										1.000

r = .1490 significant at .05 level

r = .1680 significant at .01 level

Key to Subscale:

III - Authoritarian Aggression



TABLE XLV

PRODUCT-MOMENT INTERCORRELATIONS OF ITEMS, SUBSCALE, AND  
TOTAL SCALE FOR AUTHORITARIANISM SUBSCALE IV

N=791

Items	3	9	11	14	16	21	Sub- Scale	Total Scale
3	1.000	.141	.164	.196	.190	.116	.495	.358
9		1.000	.352	.241	.213	.228	.624	.638
11			1.000	.133	.306	.206	.594	.548
14				1.000	.195	.212	.573	.458
16					1.000	.216	.593	.473
21						1.000	.580	.483
Subscale							1.000	.850
Total Scale								1.000

r = .1510 significant at .05 level

r = .1720 significant at .01 level

Key to Subscale:

IV - Power and Toughness





TABLE XLVI

PRODUCT-MOMENT INTERCORRELATIONS OF AUTHORITARIAN  
SUBSCALES WITH TOTAL SCALE

N=791

Subscales	I	II	III	IV	Total Scale
I	1.000	.556	.714	.481	.776
II		1.000	.579	.636	.826
III			1.000	.714	.906
IV				1.000	.850
Total Scale					1.000

All correlations significant beyond .001 level.

Key to Subscales:

- I - Conventionalism
- II - Authoritarian Submission
- III - Authoritarian Aggression
- IV - Power and Toughness



TABLE XLVII

PRODUCT-MOMENT INTERCORRELATIONS OF ITEMS, SUBSCALE, AND  
TOTAL BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCALE FOR SUBSCALE I

N=791

Item	12	16*	20	24	28	32	36*	40	Sub- Scale I	Total Scale
12	1.000	.170	.219	.202	.190	.250	.125	.320	.599	.449
16*		1.000	.133	.129	.042	.034	.065	.131	.425	.087
20			1.000	.287	.252	.253	.007	.300	.572	.489
24				1.000	.217	.231	-.018	.226	.565	.419
28					1.000	.389	.081	.278	.600	.463
32						1.000	.032	.275	.619	.564
36*							1.000	.088	.081	-.244
40								1.000	.621	.441
Subscale I									1.000	.728
Total Scale										1.000

r = .150 significant at .05 level

r = .169 significant at .01 level

\*These items were deleted from all analyses.

Key to Subscale:

I - Administrative Orientation





TABLE XLVIII

PRODUCT-MOMENT INTERCORRELATIONS OF ITEMS, SUBSCALE,  
AND TOTAL BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCALE FOR SUBSCALE II

N=791

Item	13	17	21	25	Sub- scale II	Total Scale
13	1.000	.273	.213	.103	.562	.353
17		1.000	.228	.292	.721	.397
21			1.000	.202	.637	.434
25				1.000	.642	.468
Subscale II					1.000	.642
Total Scale						1.000

r = .132 significant at .05 level  
r = .142 significant at .01 level

Key to Subscale:  
II - Organizational Loyalty



TABLE XLIX

PRODUCT-MOMENT INTERCORRELATIONS OF ITEMS, SUBSCALE,  
AND TOTAL BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCALE FOR SUBSCALE III

N=791

Item	14	18	22	26	Sub- scale III	Total Scale
14	1.000	.215	.286	.191	.600	.316
18		1.000	.158	.229	.624	.478
22			1.000	.269	.664	.359
26				1.000	.679	.462
Subscale III					1.000	.660
Total Scale						1.000

r = .142 significant at .01 level

Key to Subscale:  
III - Standardization of Work



TABLE L

PRODUCT-MOMENT INTERCORRELATIONS OF ITEMS, SUBSCALE,  
AND TOTAL BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCALE FOR SUBSCALE IV

N=791

Item	25	29	33	37	41	45	49	Sub- Scale IV	Total Scale
25	1.000	.285	.212	.139	.191	.088	.139	.451	.302
29		1.000	.269	.352	.221	.187	.158	.564	.419
33			1.000	.250	.180	.237	.187	.576	.401
37				1.000	.202	.358	.166	.610	.492
41					1.000	.239	.208	.518	.488
45						1.000	.258	.568	.467
49							1.000	.413	.344
Subscale IV								1.000	.595
Total Scale									1.000

r = .144 significant at .05 level

r = .164 significant at .01 level

Key to Subscale:

IV - Orientation to Rules and Procedures





TABLE LI

PRODUCT-MOMENT INTERCORRELATIONS OF ITEMS, SUBSCALE,  
AND TOTAL BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCALE FOR SUBSCALE V

N=791

Item	29	30	33	34	37	38	Sub- scale V	Total Scale
29	1.000	.269	.302	.165	.406	.125	.636	.533
30		1.000	.188	.195	.205	.232	.575	.341
33			1.000	.293	.271	.165	.607	.485
34				1.000	.125	.154	.336	.467
37					1.000	.194	.633	.602
38						1.000	.471	.270
Subscale V							1.000	.759
Total Scale								1.000

r = .138 significant at .05 level

r = .158 significant at .01 level

Key to Subscale:

V - Public Orientation



TABLE LII

PRODUCT-MOMENT INTERCORRELATIONS OF SUBSCALES WITH  
TOTAL BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCALE

N=791

Subscale	I	II	III	IV	V	Total Scale
I	1.000	.448	.362	.453	.455	.728
II		1.000	.413	.466	.356	.624
III			1.000	.449	.354	.660
IV				1.000	.341	.595
V					1.000	.759
Total Scale						1.000

All correlations significant beyond .001 level.

Key to Subscales:

- I - Administrative Orientation
- II - Organizational Loyalty
- III - Standardization of Work
- IV - Orientation to Rules and Procedures
- V - Public Orientation





## APPENDIX B

### A Report of the Pilot Study



## APPENDIX B

## A REPORT ON THE PILOT STUDY

## INTRODUCTION

A major hypothesis of the proposed study was that there would be a significant relationship between the personality variables of authoritarianism, which derive from a particular conception of authority in interpersonal relations, and the variables which are associated with a bureaucratic conception of a teacher's role in a school organization. In order to test for this relationship, a pilot study was conducted with a sample of students in the teacher education program of the University of Alberta. The basic assumption underlying the pilot study was that education students would be an appropriate group of respondents, and that they would interpret the questionnaire items in terms of their anticipated roles as teachers. Certain comparisons consistent with the research interests of the proposed study were also made to examine certain predicted relationships between the two variables under study.

## THE PILOT SAMPLE

Permission to conduct an initial survey among a sample of students was obtained from the Dean of Education and from the Head of the Department of Educational Administration through the professor serving as co-ordinator of an introductory course in educational administration. A total of 105 students from three classes was selected for the sample. The distribution of the



students in the sample is shown in Table LIII.

The assignment of education students to instructional classes was carried out by clerks during the initial university registration, with timetable co-ordination the only criterion applied. The classes selected for the sample were those in which the investigator and another graduate student gave instruction in a first-year course in educational administration, and a class in which the co-ordinator offered a similar class for holders of approved degrees. Such a selection was clearly accidental sampling (4, p. 516) and the underlying assumption was that there would have been a randomizing effect through the registration procedure, and that the classes selected would therefore be representative of the groups of students involved in similar teacher preparation programs.

The administration of the instrument took place during the first week of October, 1965—that is, at a very early stage of the students' teacher education program. A total of 72 students were present in the two freshman classes, and 33 were present in the senior class. The freshman group completed both authoritarianism scales and bureaucratic role orientation scales, while the senior group completed the bureaucratic role orientation scales only. A minimum of identification data was asked for: students indicated sex, preparation program, and the final three digits of their university I.D. number, thereby making personal identification very difficult, but permitting a re-test situation later. Students in the senior group were asked to identify themselves by sex only.





TABLE LIII

DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS IN THE PILOT SAMPLE ACCORDING  
TO SEX AND PREPARATION PROGRAM

Program	Sex			Total
	Male	Female	Not stated	
Four-year academic	21	33		54
Four-year vocational	18			18
B.Ed. after degree	16	15	2	33
Totals	55	48	2	105



## ANALYSES OF AUTHORITARIANISM SCORES

Examination of identification data indicated that there were 18 males registered in a special vocational education program, and this group had been assigned to one of three classes by special timetabling arrangements. This group represented a sub-sample which was slightly older and which had a background of experience in industry atypical of other males in the freshman class. The first procedure was to compare this group with all other males in the freshman classes with respect to the dimension of authoritarianism.

The  $t$ -test for the significance of differences between means assumes normality of the distribution of the variables in the population and equality of population variance, and is appropriately applied when there is at least an interval scale of measurement (2, pp. 143-45). Modifications in the  $t$ -test are possible to account for unequal population variances (2, p. 143). This test is typically referred to as a "robust test" in that it is powerful to make discriminations even when all assumptions which underlie the test cannot be met, especially in the case of two-tailed tests. Winer points out that

Even when the population distributions are markedly skewed, the sampling distribution of the  $t$  statistic, which assumes normality, provides a good approximation to the exact sampling distribution which takes into account the skewness (6, p. 34).

On the basis of this argument, scores were not examined for normality of distribution before being tested for significance of differences of means. Samples were tested for homoscedasticity





before the  $t$ -test was employed.

There was no *a priori* basis for assuming any difference in the two groups in the dimension of authoritarianism measured. Accordingly, the null hypothesis was assumed, and a confidence level of .05 was set for rejection.

The obtained  $t$  value was not high enough to reject the null hypothesis. There was no reason to assume that male students from both types of programs in both freshman classes were not drawn from the same population. These calculations are summarized in Table LIV.

Since all males could be assumed to be drawn from the same population in terms of authoritarianism, the entire male group was then compared with the female group. Again, the null hypothesis was assumed. The difference between the group means between males and females proved to be highly insignificant. It could be assumed that all students in the two freshman classes were drawn from the same population in terms of the variable measured. These data are presented in Table LV.

#### ANALYSIS OF BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCORES

Unlike the scores obtained on the authoritarian scales, the scores obtained on the bureaucratic role orientation scales produced means of nearly equal size among the three groups identified in the freshman classes, *i.e.*, vocational education males, academic education males, and females. Inspection suggested that no significant differences would exist. A one-way analysis of variance was employed to test for significance of differences between means



TABLE LIV

MEAN AUTHORITARIANISM SCORES, VARIANCES, AND SIGNIFICANCE  
OF DIFFERENCE FOR MALE FRESHMAN STUDENTS

N=39

Group	Mean	S <sup>2</sup>	Diff.	SE <sub>D</sub>	t	P
Voc. Ed. N = 18	89.0	307.1				
Academic N = 21	98.2	222.6	9.2	5.48	1.679	NS

t = 2.035 required for significance at .05 level with 37 d.f.

TABLE LV

MEAN AUTHORITARIANISM SCORES, VARIANCES, AND SIGNIFICANCE  
OF DIFFERENCE FOR ALL FRESHMAN STUDENTS

N=72

Group	Mean	S <sup>2</sup>	Diff.	SE <sub>D</sub>	t	P
Males N = 39	92.67	326.3				
Females N = 33	91.79	211.3	.88	3.96	.222	NS

t = 1.995 required for significance at .05 level with 70 d.f.



simultaneously.

The mathematical model on which the F test, used in the analysis of variance, is based, assumes normality of the distribution of the statistic in the population, as well as homogeneity of variances. It has been demonstrated, however, that the F test is powerful enough to discriminate even when normality and homoscedasticity cannot be assumed, especially in cases where the N's are relatively large and are nearly equal in size (2, pp. 239-40). On the basis of Ferguson's argument, the analysis of variance was completed for the three means without initial tests of normality or homoscedasticity.

The null hypothesis was assumed, and once again the .05 level of confidence was set for rejection. The results of the analysis (Table LVI) revealed a value of F which did not reach significance. There was no reason to assume that the education students in the freshman sub-sample differed in the degree of bureaucratic role orientation they held for their anticipated role as teachers.

A comment is required on the implication of an obtained F ratio less than unity. Walker and Lev suggest four reasons why  $F < 1$  might occur: (a) the computation may be incorrect, (b) the data may be artificial or improperly gathered, (c) the subjects were not drawn at random from the population with respect to the treatment under consideration, or (d) it is simply the operation of chance factors (5, p. 207). As indicated, homoscedasticity need not be assumed to justify the analysis of variance: but in





TABLE LVI

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCORES  
OF THREE SUBPOPULATIONS OF FRESHMEN STUDENTS

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Variance Estimate	F
Between Means	159.65	2	79.83	
Within Groups	10578.35	69	153.30	
Total	10738.00	71		.521

F = 3.13 required for significance at .05 level with 2/69 d.f.



any case, the very small differences between means (87.1, 90.8, and 90.3 for vocational males, academic males, and females respectively) indicated by inspection that a test for homoscedasticity would not be necessary. A recalculation of scores confirmed the computational accuracy, and there was no doubt that the data were genuine and conscientiously gathered. While chance factors may have been responsible for the finding, a more plausible reason was the third one advanced: the subjects were not selected at random with respect to the variable examined.

Either the manner in which the sample was drawn, or the common orientation among the students recruited to the teaching program could have contributed to sampling bias with respect to the variable under study. The latter explanation seemed more appropriate: it would be reasonable to expect a number of common factors among any group which makes a common vocational choice. In other words, the variable is not randomly distributed because a common orientation was one of the factors in the vocational choice made. A more serious implication would have been that the instrument, which had been shown to have high discriminating power among teachers in service, was inappropriate for education students.

A total of 33 students in the senior class completed the bureaucratic role orientation scales, and 31 usable instruments were obtained. Two others on which respondents did not identify their sex were eliminated from the analysis.

The first comparison was made on differences in scores obtained by males and females. The group included men and women of





equivalent academic background: all of them were graduates of other university programs. The level of educational background among females aspiring to become teachers might mitigate against the general cultural conception of female submission and dependency, and contribute to a role conception in which they would desire a fairly high degree of independence. On the other hand, they were at the beginning of their teacher training program, and perhaps might have viewed teaching from the standpoint of the student, and matters pertaining to teachers from the same perspective. In later stages of their programs they might use the perspectives of teachers, rather than students. Males presumably have long-range objectives in preparing for a career in teaching; for many females, teaching is a secondary occupation to marriage. For females, classroom teaching in itself is a prestigious occupation; for males, promotional factors are more important. While numerous studies have indicated that one of the most meaningful classifications in attitudes is based on sex, Merton's point seemed particularly relevant in drawing hypotheses in this instance:

While we agree with Gouldner that one does not have to be Freudian to insist that sex makes a difference, even for organizational behavior, there is no *a priori* reason to hypothesize that women would be more apt than men to accept authority (3, p. 412).

Accordingly, the null hypothesis was assumed with respect to differences in bureaucratic role orientation between male and female senior students.

The analyses of the data revealed a higher mean score for women which when subjected to a *t*-test proved to be highly signifi-



cant. The men in the senior class sampled showed a significantly lower preference for a bureaucratic conception of their anticipated role as teachers. These data are presented in Table LVII.

Using the rationale that increased levels of training would contribute to a role conception in which the individual would be positively oriented towards situations that accorded him scope for his competence, it was hypothesized that among males, higher levels of training would be inversely related to preference for bureaucracy. The prediction was made that senior students would have significantly lower bureaucratic role orientation scores than freshman male students in both programs. This hypothesis was confirmed at a high level of confidence (Table LVIII).

Comparison was then made of the bureaucratic role orientation scores of female students at the two levels of the training program. The assumption of an inverse relationship between level of training and bureaucratic role orientation was tested in the same manner as had been used for males. The research hypothesis was that female seniors would have lower bureaucratic role orientation scores than female freshmen. Analysis revealed that the difference in means, though not significant, was in fact in the reverse of the predicted direction. There was no evidence that level of training among females was related to level of bureaucratic orientation. These findings are summarized in Table LIX.

In summary, analyses of bureaucratic role orientation scores revealed that: (1) there were no significant differences among any of the subpopulations of the freshman group, (2) level of





TABLE LVII

MEAN BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCORES, VARIANCES,  
AND SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES FOR SENIOR STUDENTS

N=31

Group	Mean	S <sup>2</sup>	Diff.	SE <sub>D</sub>	t	P
Males N = 16	83.8	59.5				
			13.8	3.4	3.890	.001
Females N = 15	97.0	121.6				

t + 3.659 required for significance at .001 level with 29 d.f.

TABLE LVIII

MEAN BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCORES, VARIANCES, AND  
SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE FOR MALE EDUCATION STUDENTS AT TWO LEVELS

N=55

Group	Mean	S <sup>2</sup> *	Diff.	SE <sub>D</sub>	t**	P
Seniors N = 16	83.8	59.5				
			8.9	3.52	2.53	.01
Freshmen N = 39	92.7	320.8				

\*adjustment made by Cochran and Cox method for unequal population  
variances (2, p. 143)  
\*\*t = 2.47 (adjusted) required for significance at .01 level with  
53 d.f. (one-tail)





TABLE LIX  
MEAN BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCORES, VARIANCES, AND  
SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE FOR FEMALE EDUCATION STUDENTS  
AT TWO LEVELS

N=48

Group	Mean	S <sup>2</sup>	Diff.	SE <sub>D</sub>	t	P
Seniors N = 15	97.0	121.6	6.5	4.1	1.58	NS
Freshmen N = 33	90.5	151.6				

t = 2.019 required for significance at .05 level with 46 d.f.



training was significantly related to bureaucratic role orientation among males, (3) but not among females in the total sample, and (4) between male and female senior students.

#### TESTING FOR RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN AUTHORITARIANISM AND BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION

The major purpose of the pilot study was to determine if in fact there were significant relationships between the variables of authoritarianism and bureaucratic role orientation. More specifically, the pilot study sought to find evidence that the independent variable of authoritarianism could be used to predict differences in bureaucratic role orientation in a population of teachers.

One of the most frequently used and sensitive measurements of the relationship between two variables is the Pearson product-moment coefficient of correlation. The major assumption underlying the correlation coefficient is that the linear regression model is a good fit to the data (2, p. 110). No assumption of normality is necessary. While Ferguson points out that differences in the shapes of the distribution of the variables may produce lower correlation coefficients than would otherwise be expected, (2, p. 110), Hay justifies the use of the correlation coefficient on the grounds that the forms of the two distributions is not crucial.

It is not necessary to make any assumptions at all about the form of the distribution, the variability of Y scores within X columns or "arrays", or the true level of measurement represented by the scores in order to employ linear regression and correlation indices to describe a given set of data. So long as there are N distinct cases, each having two numerical scores, X and Y, then the descriptive statistics of correlation and regression may be used. In so doing





we describe the data as though a linear rule were to be used for prediction, and this is a perfectly adequate way to talk about the tendency of these numerical scores to associate or "go together" in a linear way in these data (1, p. 510).

On the basis of Hays' argument the product-moment coefficient of correlation was used to test the association between the two variables under study. A total of 70 of the 72 freshman students completed usable authoritarianism and bureaucratic role orientation instruments. Two others omitted items on one or both scales, and these instruments were eliminated from the analyses. The product-moment coefficient of correlation was calculated for total scores on each of the scales, yielding  $r = .461$ . As a computational check, a Spearman rank correlation was also computed, yielding  $P = .468$ .

In using a correlation coefficient between a set of paired observations, the null hypothesis is assumed that the value of the obtained coefficient is not significantly different from zero. A test for significance may then be applied using the distribution of  $t$ , with  $N - 2$  d.f. (2, p. 152). The obtained  $t$  score for the correlation coefficient was 4.428, which was highly significant. The probability of an association of the level noted by chance factors was less than .0001, using 68 degrees of freedom. The null hypothesis was therefore rejected. There was a highly significant functional relationship between the two variables in the same population.

While both "authoritarianism" and "bureaucratic role orientation" represented unitary concepts, certain dimensionality in



each variable was posited. Relationships among the dimensions or subscales were derived through the calculation of the intercorrelation matrix shown in Table LX. The matrix was limited to the scores of one class of 35 freshman students because all computations were performed by the investigator with the aid of a calculator.

The matrix indicated significant intercorrelations with the respective criterion variables of authoritarianism and bureaucratic role orientation. Low but significant correlation suggested that the scales were measuring related but different aspects of the same criterion (2, p. 302). An examination of the matrix indicated that total scale scores served as the best predictors.

#### AUTHORITARIANISM AS A PREDICTOR VARIABLE

The rationale developed for the proposed study suggested a direct relationship between the level of authoritarianism expressed by a teacher and his predisposition to adopt a bureaucratic role orientation towards his organizational position. It was hypothesized that students who were ranked "high" in authoritarianism would have significantly higher mean bureaucratic role orientation scores than would those who were ranked "low" in authoritarianism.

In order to test this hypothesis, the authoritarianism scores of all 70 freshmen were rank-ordered from highest to lowest, with the highest one-third of the group designated "high", the second one-third designed "moderate" and the lowest one-third designated "low". This procedure yielded groups with 23, 24, and 23 pairs of student scores respectively. Mean bureaucratic role





TABLE LX

PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATIONS OF TOTAL SCALE AND SUBSCALE SCORES  
OF AUTHORITARIANISM AND BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCALES

N=35

Scale or Subscale	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. BRO Scale Score	1.00										
2. Administrative Orientation	.72	1.00									
3. Loyalty to the Organization	.58	.21	1.00								
4. Interchangeability of Personnel	.67	.26	.62	1.00							
5. Rules and Procedures	.84	.61	.36	.54	1.00						
6. Public Orientation	.63	.43	.31	.35	.31	1.00					
7. Authoritarianism—Scale Score	.49	.33	.35	.40	.27	.30	1.00				
8. Conventionalism	.34	.35	.06	.21	.18	.23	.82	1.00			
9. Authoritarian Submission	.41	.29	.32	.44	.28	.22	.94	.72	1.00		
10. Authoritarian Aggression	.40	.23	.29	.22	.15	.26	.97	.62	.46	1.00	
11. "Power and Toughness"	.43	.21	.40	.32	.26	.27	.91	.42	.41	.61	1.00
Scale or Subscale	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11

r = .34 significant at .05 level

4 = .43 significant at .01 level





orientation scores were calculated for the "high" and "low" groups. The significance of the difference in the mean scores was found by the use of the  $t$ -test, after the data were examined for homogeneity of variance. The hypothesis was confirmed at a level of confidence beyond .0005. These data are presented in Table LXI. Differences in means were so extreme that a  $t$ -test of the difference between the means of bureaucratic role orientation scores for students above and below the median score in authoritarianism yielded a  $t$ -score of 2.010, which with 68 degrees of freedom was significant beyond .001 (one-tail).

In order to test for any attitudinal or orientational change during the course of a term, the investigator retested one class with the bureaucratic role orientation instrument. Students in the course of the term had been exposed to an introductory course in educational administration which examined the legal and institutional structure of education, including the organizational features of the teacher's daily task. A section on professional relationships touched on the nature of a teacher's responsibility with his various publics, and responsibilities inherent in a "professional" designation of an occupational group.

Students identified their instruments by the final three digits of their I.D. numbers, and this made it possible to compare their scores with those obtained four months previously. A total of 35 students in the class completed usable test-retest sets of instruments.

The variable under measure is an attitudinal change in two



TABLE LXI

MEAN BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCORES, VARIANCES,  
AND SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE FOR STUDENTS  
"HIGH" AND "LOW" IN AUTHORITARIANISM

N=46

Group	Mean	S <sup>2</sup>	Diff.	SE <sub>d</sub>	t	P
High Auth. N = 23	98.0	146.10				
			14.3	3.62	3.950	.0005
Low Auth. N = 23	83.7	143.46				

t = 3.531 required for significance at .0005 level with 44 d.f.  
(one-tail)





groups (high and low authoritarians) after being subjected to a common socialization process. The statistical test applied was to obtain the significance of the difference between the correlated variances of each group (2, pp. 142-3).

No prediction was made with respect to change that might be expected in the course of a term. Accordingly, the null hypothesis was assumed, and the .05 level of confidence was set for rejection.

A product-moment correlation coefficient for the group scores obtained in October and January was calculated, yielding  $r = .535$ . The variances of the group scores for each administration were calculated, and the significance of the change in variance, coupled with an increase in the mean score, indicated a regression towards greater uniformity of attitude in the direction of a stronger bureaucratic role orientation. The obtained value of  $t$ , however, was not high enough to reject the null hypothesis. There was no basis to suggest that students had modified their orientations significantly concerning their anticipated teacher roles.

A further analysis was completed for the high and low authoritarianism sub-groups within the class; *i.e.*, the upper and lower thirds of rank-ordered scores of authoritarianism ( $N = 12$  for each sub-group). In neither sub-group was the change in variance between the two administrations of the bureaucratic role orientation instrument significantly different from zero. It was noted that there was a higher stability of responses among the



high group: sub-group means were almost identical in each instance, and there also was a significant (.01) correlation between the two separate sets of scores. There was no significant relationship between the scores on the separate tests for the sub-group rated as low in authoritarianism.

The significance of the difference between means of the high and low authoritarianism sub-groups in the bureaucratic role orientation scores of the October and January tests was found by the *t*-test for independent samples. Differences were significant well beyond the .005 level for both sets of scores, indicating that the orientations towards an organizational role remained consistently different. The finding also validated the discriminating power claimed for the bureaucratic role orientation scales. These data are presented in Table LXII.

#### SUMMARY OF RESULTS

The purpose of the pilot study was to test with a sample of teachers in training for some predicted relationships between the major variables under study, *viz.*, the sub-syndrome of authoritarianism and a bureaucratic-employee conception of anticipated role.

The sample chosen included 72 male and female students in two freshman classes, and 33 students in a senior class in educational administration. None of the students had any teaching experience, and the administration of the instrument was given at a point early in the university term. All students in the sample completed the bureaucratic role orientation scales, and in addition



TABLE LXII

MEAN BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCORES, VARIANCES,  
CORRELATIONS, AND SIGNIFICANCES OF DIFFERENCES OF  
MEANS AND CORRELATED VARIANCES IN A FRESHMAN CLASS  
OF EDUCATION STUDENTS

Group	October Mean	S <sup>2</sup>	January Mean	S <sup>2</sup>	r <sub>S<sub>1</sub><sup>2</sup>S<sub>2</sub><sup>2</sup></sub>	t	P
Total Class N = 35	91.91	146.22	96.23	88.43	.535	1.701	NS**
High Auth. N = 12	101.08	116.75	101.50	65.42	.715	1.328	NS***
Low Auth. N = 12	84.91	92.79	90.67	53.95	-.136	.876	NS***
Diff. of Means	16.17		10.83				
SE <sub>D</sub>	4.36		3.29				
t*	3.71		3.29				
P	.005		.005				

\*t = 2.819 required for significance at .005 level with 22 d.f. (one-tail)  
\*\*t = 2.039 required for significance at .05 level with 33 d.f. (two-tail)  
\*\*\*t = 2.228 required for significance at .05 level with 10 d.f. (two-tail)





the freshman class completed the shortened authoritarianism scale. One class of freshmen repeated the bureaucratic role orientation instrument at the end of the first university term in January.

The data were submitted to a number of statistical tests to determine whether hypothesized relationships between the variables were significant. The hypotheses tested and the related findings are summarized below.

1.  $H_0$ : There is no difference in the degree of authoritarianism expressed among freshman students.

Finding:  $H_0$  not rejected. Males in two different programs, and female students did not have significantly different mean scores.

2.  $H_0$ : There is no difference in the degree of bureaucratic role orientation expressed among freshman students.

Finding:  $H_0$  not rejected. Males in two different programs, and female students did not have significantly different mean scores.

3.  $H_0$ : There is no difference in the degree of bureaucratic role orientation between male and female senior students.

Finding:  $H_0$  rejected at a confidence level beyond .001. Males had significantly lower mean bureaucratic orientation scores.

4.  $H_1$ : Male senior students have significantly lower mean bureaucratic role orientation scores than freshman males.

Finding:  $H_1$  confirmed at a confidence level beyond .01.

5.  $H_1$ : Female senior students have significantly lower mean bureaucratic role orientation scores than do freshman females.

Finding:  $H_1$  rejected. The difference in means was not significant, but was in the reverse of the predicted direction.

6.  $H_1$ : There is a significant correlation between the total authoritarianism scores and the total bureaucratic role orientation scores of the freshman students.



Finding:  $H_1$  confirmed at .0001 level of confidence. A product-moment correlation of .461 and a rank-order correlation of .468 were obtained.

7.  $H_1$ : There are significant correlations between the subscale scores of authoritarianism and bureaucratic role orientation.

Finding:  $H_1$  confirmed at .05 level of confidence. An intercorrelation matrix for the two total scales indicated that all but two of the correlations between the subscale scores of one instrument and the total scales of the other instrument were significant.

8.  $H_1$ : Freshman students in the upper third of the group total scores in authoritarianism have significantly higher mean bureaucratic role orientation scores than students in the lower third of total authoritarianism scores.

Finding:  $H_1$  confirmed at a level of confidence beyond .0005.

9.  $H_0$ : There is no difference between the mean bureaucratic role orientation scores of a class of freshman students at the beginning and at the end of a university term.

Finding:  $H_0$  not rejected. The change in variance of scores was not significant.

10.  $H_0$ : There is no difference between the mean bureaucratic role orientation scores of freshman students in the upper and lower thirds of group authoritarianism scores and their respective mean scores at the beginning and at the end of a university term.

Finding:  $H_0$  not rejected. The change in variance of scores was not significant.

11.  $H_1$ : Freshman students in the upper third of the group total scores in authoritarianism have significantly higher mean bureaucratic role orientation scores than students in the lower third of total authoritarianism scores at the end of a university term.

Finding:  $H_1$  confirmed at a level of confidence beyond .005.

The group studied was an accidental sample of students from two levels of the teacher preparation program. The basic research problem of the pilot study was to show that overall associations





between the authoritarianism scales and bureaucratic role orientation scales could be demonstrated. The hypotheses submitted to test were those that the investigator would have submitted to data from teachers in service had a sample been drawn from that population.

A major assumption underlying the pilot research was that a sample of students in preparation for teaching would serve as a valid test group for the hypotheses proposed for empirical research with teachers in service. The findings reported here were taken as justification for conducting the research with a large sample of teachers working in different school organizations in Alberta.



## REFERENCES FOR APPENDIX B

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APPENDIX C

The Instrument for the Pilot Study





This questionnaire is designed to gain reactions to a number of statements from a sample of students in the Faculty of Education. The information is sought for research purposes by a graduate student in the Department of Educational Administration. Individual replies will be held in strict confidence, and no student or class will be identified in any way in any follow-up use of the information gathered.

## PERSONAL DATA:

Please check (✓) in the space which describes your status:

- |                                 |  |                                     |
|---------------------------------|--|-------------------------------------|
| 1. Sex:                         | 2. Age:                                    | 3. Degree Pattern:                  |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Male   | <input type="checkbox"/> 20 years or under | <input type="checkbox"/> Elementary |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Female | <input type="checkbox"/> 21 - 23 years     | <input type="checkbox"/> Secondary  |
|                                 | <input type="checkbox"/> over 23 years     | Major field (specify)<br>_____      |
4. Background before entering the Faculty of Education:
- ☐ completed high school matriculation program last June
- ☐ had a year or less of full-time employment following matriculation
- ☐ had more than one year of full-time employment since completing matriculation
- ☐ spent a year or more in another faculty before transferring to Education.
- ☐ other (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

## INSTRUCTIONS:

On the following pages are given a number of statements which reflect opinions or attitudes which a teacher might hold for his or her job in the school or the educational system in which he or she works. Indicate the extent of your personal agreement with these statements by circling the appropriate responses.

WORK RAPIDLY ON THESE STATEMENTS. First reactions are important. Please react to every statement, even though you feel you may not have enough information.

After reading each statement,

CIRCLE: SA if you "strongly agree" with the statement,  
A if you "agree moderately" with the statement,  
U if you are uncertain or undecided whether you agree or disagree,  
D if you "disagree moderately" with the statement,  
SD if you "strongly disagree" with the statement made.

NOTE: the term "administration" as it is used in the questionnaire refers to various officials such as principals, supervisors, superintendents, etc., or to regulations of the School Board.



- |  |    |   |   |   |    |
|--|----|---|---|---|----|
| 1. Teachers should adjust their teaching techniques to conform to the administration's view of good educational practice.  | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 2. The school is entitled to expect the whole-hearted loyalty and support of all members of its teaching staff.  | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 3. Teachers throughout the school system giving instruction in the same subject should follow the same kind of lesson plans.   | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 4. A teacher should be required to be completely familiar with the written descriptions of the rules, procedures, manuals, and other standard operating procedures necessary for running his or her own classroom. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 5. Typically, the school administration is better qualified than is the teacher to judge what is best for education.   | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 6. A good teacher should put the interests of his school above everything else.  | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 7. Teachers should teach their courses in such a way that a substitute can take over at a moment's notice without serious interruption.  | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 8. The school should have a manual of rules and regulations which are to be followed seriously.  | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 9. Teachers should be obedient, respectful, and loyal to the principal.  | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 10. In case of doubt about whether a particular practice is better than another, the primary test should be what seems best for the overall reputation of the school.  | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 11. The work of a course should be so planned that every child taking the same kind of course throughout the system will cover the same material in the same period of time.                                       | SA | A | U | D | SD |





12. Rules stating when teachers should arrive and depart from the school building should be strictly enforced. SA A U D SD
  
13. In case of a dispute in the community over whether a controversial book or controversial speaker should be permitted in the school, teachers should look primarily to the judgment of the administration for guidance. SA A U D SD
  
14. A good teacher should put the interests of his own department of the school above everything else. SA A U D SD
  
15. A good teacher should be able to teach the children what they need to know in the time that is made available. SA A U D SD
  
16. To prevent confusion and friction among the staff, there should be a rule covering almost every problem that might come up at the school. SA A U D SD
  
17. Teachers who openly criticize the administration should be encouraged to go elsewhere. SA A U D SD
  
18. Teachers should take into account the opinions of their community in guiding what they say in class and in their choice of teaching materials. SA A U D SD
  
19. A teacher should not publicly advocate a point of view which differs greatly from the major opinion of the community. SA A U D SD
  
20. School rules should be adhered to, and when there are exceptional cases the teacher should be expected to check with the administration rather than use his own judgment. SA A U D SD
  
21. A teacher should not allow himself or herself to be influenced by the opinions of those teachers whose ideas do not reflect the thinking of the administration. SA A U D SD



22. A good teacher is one who conforms, in general, to accepted standards in the community. SA A U D SD
23. The major criterion of a good school is that it serves the needs of the local community. SA A U D SD
24. There should be definite rules specifying the topics that are not appropriate for discussion in a classroom. SA A U D SD
25. The only way a teacher can keep out of "hot water" is to follow the wishes of the top administration. SA A U D SD
26. A teacher should not attempt to discuss in the classroom any controversial issues which may jeopardize the school's public relations. SA A U D SD
27. Control over schools by local school boards represents a fundamental and necessary form of democracy in public education. SA A U D SD
28. When a controversy arises about the interpretation of school rules, a teacher should not "stick his neck out" by taking a definite position. SA A U D SD
29. In case of a disagreement between the principal and a teacher over a method of instruction in the classroom, the teacher should agree to follow the principal's views. SA A U D SD

## END OF PART ONE

The next part also presents a number of statements calling for your reaction. Note the instructions at the beginning of Part Two.





## INSTRUCTIONS:

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This part contains statements of a general nature with which some people agree and others disagree. Please mark each one in the space provided in the left margin according to the amount of your agreement or disagreement, by using the following scale:

+1 means slight support or agreement    -1 means slight opposition or disagreement  
+2 means moderate support or agreement   -2 means moderate opposition or disagreement  
+3 means strong support or agreement    -3 means strong opposition or disagreement

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. Obedience and respect for authority are the most important virtues children should learn. (I, II, I)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. No weakness or difficulty can hold us back if we have enough will power. (IV,2)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. Science has its place, but there are many important things that can never possibly be understood by the human mind. (II,4)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. Every person should have complete faith in some supernatural power whose decisions he obeys without question. (II,8)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. A person who has bad manners, habits, and breeding can hardly expect to get along with decent people. (I,III,12)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. What the youth needs most is strict discipline, rugged determination, and the will to work and fight for family and country. (III,IV,13)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 7. An insult to our honor should always be punished. (III,IV,19)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 8. Young people get rebellious ideas, but as they grow up they ought to get over them and settle down. (II,21)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 9. What this country needs most, more than laws and political programs, is a few courageous, tireless, devoted leaders in whom the people can put their trust. (II,IV,23)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 10. Sex crimes, such as rapes and attacks on children, deserve more than mere imprisonment; such criminals ought to be publicly whipped, or worse. (III,25)





- \_\_\_ 11. People can be divided into two classes: the strong and the weak. (IV,26)
- \_\_\_ 12. There is hardly anything lower than a person who does not feel a great love, gratitude, and respect for his parents. (III,27)
- \_\_\_ 13. Most of our social problems would be solved if we could somehow get rid of the immoral, crooked, or feeble minded people. (IV,34)
- \_\_\_ 14. If people would talk less and work more, everybody would be a lot better off. (I,III,37)
- \_\_\_ 15. Most people don't realize how much our lives are controlled by plots hatched in secret places. (IV,38)
- \_\_\_ 16. Homosexuals are hardly better than criminals, and ought to be severely punished. (III,39)
- \_\_\_ 17. The businessman and the manufacturer are much more important to society than the artist and the professor. (I,41)
- \_\_\_ 18. No sane, normal, decent person could ever think of hurting a close friend or relative. (II,42)
- \_\_\_ 19. Nobody ever learned anything really important except through suffering. (II,44)



## APPENDIX E

### THE F SCALE: ITS DIMENSIONS AND UNDERLYING THEORY

The F scale is a measure of authoritarianism, a concept defined by Adorno et al. (1950) as a "tendency to accept the authority of established figures and institutions without question, and to view them as the source of all good and evil." The F scale is a 30-item self-report measure that assesses the degree to which individuals agree with statements that reflect authoritarian attitudes. The items are scored on a 4-point scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). The F scale score is calculated by summing the scores for all 30 items, with a possible range of 30 to 120. Higher scores indicate a higher degree of authoritarianism.

## APPENDIX D

### The F Scale: Its Dimensions and Underlying Theory

The F scale is a measure of authoritarianism, a concept defined by Adorno et al. (1950) as a "tendency to accept the authority of established figures and institutions without question, and to view them as the source of all good and evil." The F scale is a 30-item self-report measure that assesses the degree to which individuals agree with statements that reflect authoritarian attitudes. The items are scored on a 4-point scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). The F scale score is calculated by summing the scores for all 30 items, with a possible range of 30 to 120. Higher scores indicate a higher degree of authoritarianism.

The F scale is based on the theory of authoritarianism, which posits that individuals who score high on the F scale have a rigid, black-and-white view of the world. They are likely to be obedient to authority, even if it means following orders that are morally questionable. They are also likely to be hostile towards those who are perceived to be different or who challenge the status quo. The F scale is a measure of this authoritarian personality, which is thought to be a result of a combination of factors, including childhood experiences, socialization, and individual differences.





## APPENDIX D

## THE F SCALE: ITS DIMENSIONS AND UNDERLYING THEORY

The term "authoritarian" or "authoritarianism" is no longer a purely descriptive or "neutral" word in the language. Like "bureaucracy", it is more than a technical term, and has a pejorative connotation attached to it in popular literature. "Authoritarianism" is used in this study as nothing more than a shorthand way of referring to a sub-syndrome of personality characteristics as measured by four of the subscales developed by Adorno and his associates at the University of California.

The original purpose of the research that went into the construction of the F Scale was to tap certain underlying personality correlates of prejudice, and to devise a scale which would yield a valid estimate of "anti-democratic" tendencies at the personality level. The clinical work of the authors led them to believe that aside from reflecting surface opinion, anti-semitism and ethnocentrism were general tendencies with sources, at least in part, deep within the structure of the person. Their clinical material indicated numerous trends which appeared to be connected with prejudice. From these trends Adorno and his associates were able to derive and define a number of variables, functionally related to manifestations of prejudice. The term "authoritarian personality" was affixed to a cluster of variables which were identified as part of a single syndrome, and which were found to be present in an individual to a "marked" degree.



# THE DIMENSIONS OF THE F SCALE

The nine subscales of the F Scale, and the dimensions they purport to measure, are:

1. Conventionalism. Rigid adherence to conventional middle-class values.
2. Authoritarian Submission. Submissive, uncritical attitude toward idealized moral authorities of the ingroup.
3. Authoritarian Aggression. Tendency to be on the lookout for, and to condemn, reject, and punish people who violate conventional values.
4. Anti-intraception. Opposition to the subjective, the imaginative, the tender-minded.
5. Superstition and Stereotypy. The belief in mystical determinants of the individual's fate; the disposition to think in rigid categories.
6. Power and Toughness. Preoccupation with the dominance-submission, strong-weak, leader-follower dimension; identification with power figures; exaggerated assertion of strength and toughness.
7. Destructiveness and Cynicism. Generalized hostility, vilification of the human.
8. Projectivity. The disposition to believe that wild and dangerous things go on in the world; the projection outward of unconscious emotional impulses.
9. Sex. Ego-alien sexuality; exaggerated concern with sexual "goings on", and punitiveness towards violators of sex mores.

Four of these Subscales, *Conventionalism*, *Authoritarian Submission*, *Authoritarian Aggression*, and *Power and Toughness*, were selected as measurements of deep-seated attitudes towards power and authority in the larger society and in interpersonal relations. The rationale developed for the study posited a relationship between internalized and unconscious attitudes towards authority and the role conception an individual held for himself as a member of an





organization, which has an authoritative element as its principal mechanism of coordination.

The rationale for the F Scale suggests that each of the subscales represents a more or less central trend in the person which, in accordance with some dynamic process, is expressed in diverse psychologically related opinions and attitudes. Two important inferences are drawn from the study which produced the F Scale: (a) that the authoritarian personality ( or sub-syndromes within the larger syndrome) forms a structural unity which is distinguishable as a personality type—and therefore constitutes a fairly stable attribute, and (b) that this type extends beyond the areas of personality functioning related to attitudes, but carried into role-taking, and role conception, and overt behavior.

The subscales as dimensions of the F Scale represent trends or mechanisms within the personality system. These dimensions have been described by Sanford, one of the authors of the original studies reported in *The Authoritarian Personality* in terms of the clinical evidence obtained from extensive interviews into the nature of prejudice. The research had as its basis the investigation into prejudice against minority groups; specifically, anti-Semitism.

#### Conventionalism

It was observed in our conversations with anti-Semitic subjects that most of their accusations against Jews were couched in conventionally moralistic terms. This theme was also pronounced in the early A-S scale items [developed as an initial study by the same research group]. Our thought here was that we were dealing not so much with bad experiences with Jews or with adaptation to a general climate of opinion as with a need to adhere strictly to conventional,





middle-class values, a disposition to feel anxious at the sight of or the thought of any violation of these values—something that could be attributed to instability in the individual's own value system. It is important to note that conventionalism refers not merely to conformity with middle-class values but to *rigid* adherence to such values, to an *overaccent* upon them and to responsiveness to contemporary *external* social pressure. Items expressive of this trend invite the subject to go *all-out* in his support of conventional values, *e.g.*, "A person who has bad manners, habits, and breeding can hardly expect to get along with decent people."

#### Authoritarian Submission

Submission to authority, desire for a strong leader, subservience of the individual to the state, had for some time been put forward as important aspects of the Nazi creed. It was thus natural that these themes should be taken into account in a search for the correlates of prejudice. *Authoritarian submission* as we termed the hypothetical generalized disposition of personality, was conceived of not as a balanced, realistic respect for valid authority, but as an exaggerated, emotional need to submit. This seems well represented in the item: "Every person should have a deep faith in some supernatural force higher than himself to which he gives total allegiance and whose decisions he obeys without question." Here, as with conventionalism, the individual is assumed to be oriented toward external powers or agencies of control rather than under the direction of a conscience of his own.

#### Authoritarian Aggression

Authoritarian submission is closely related, conceptually, to *authoritarian aggression*. Both attitudes, according to theory, spring from underlying hostility toward ingroup authorities, originally the parents. The individual strives to keep this hostility in check by overdoing in the direction of respect, obedience, gratitude towards the ingroup authorities and by displacing the underlying hostility towards these authorities onto outgroups. This is the most essential connection between authoritarian submission and ethnocentrism. But it appears that the tendency to displace hostility is more general than that seen in the common forms of prejudice; the greatest variety of people and actions are likely to become the objects of condemnation. The connection of this hostility and its original source is seen in the fact that the kinds of things for which the individual would punish others are the same as those for which he was punished. But he has





identified himself with the ingroup authorities of his childhood, and found in the tendency to punish wrongdoings in others a safe, and fairly well-sanctioned, outlet for his aggression. The items chosen to represent authoritarian aggression offer the subject a chance to favor condemnation, total rejection, stern discipline or severe punishment as ways for dealing with a variety of people and forms of behavior; *e.g.*, Sex crimes, such as rape and attacks on children, deserve more than mere imprisonment; such criminals ought to be publicly whipped, or worse."

### Power and Toughness

The state of affairs in which the individual has to submit to powers and agencies with which he is not fully in sympathy leaves him with a nagging sense of weakness. Since to admit such weakness is to damage self-respect, every effort is made to deny it. These include the projection of weakness onto outgroups according to the formula "I am not weak, they are," and the use of the mechanism of overcompensation, according to which the individual seeks to present to the world an aspect of *power and toughness*. Accent on the strong-weak, dominant-submissive, leader-follower dimension in human relations is, of course, a familiar feature of the Nazi outlook. In our experience it appeared that the "power complex" contained elements that were essentially contradictory. Whereas the power-centered individual wants to have power, he is at the same time afraid to seize it and wield it. He also admires power in others and is inclined to submit to it, but is at the same time afraid of the weakness thus implied. A common solution for such a person is to align himself with power figures, thus gratifying both his need to have power and his need to submit. By submitting to power he can somehow still participate in it. The following is a sample of the items designed to represent this theme: "What the youth needs most is strict discipline, rugged determination, and the will to work and fight for family and country."

### THE THEORY UNDERLYING THE F SCALE

The basis for the theory upon which the F Scale was constructed is derived from the psychoanalytic approach to the study of personality. A rather abbreviated version of the essential theory has been presented by Sanford, and his discussion of the theory





of the entire F Scale is presented in his own words.

In their theoretical work on the F Scale the research group leaned heavily upon the concepts of superego, ego, and id. It was considered that these features of the personality have characteristic modes of functioning in the ethnocentric subject. As a first approximation, one might say that in the highly ethnocentric person the superego is strict, rigid and relatively externalized, the id is strong, primitive, and ego-alien, while the ego is weak and can manage the superego-id conflicts only by resorting to rather desperate defenses. But this general formulation would hold for a very large segment of the population and, thus, it is necessary to look more closely at the functioning of these parts of the person in the authoritarian syndrome.

In considering the variables which entered into the theory underlying the F Scale, it may be seen that the first three—Conventionalism, Authoritarian Submission, and Authoritarian Aggression—all have to do with superego functioning. The accent is upon external reinforcements of strict superego demands, and upon punishment in the name of those authorities to whom the subject has submitted.

Anti-intracception, Superstition and Stereotypy, and Projectivity may be regarded as manifestations of a relatively weak ego. Anti-intracception involves the primitive defense mechanisms of repression, denial, keeping things ego-alien. Superstition shows an inclination to shift responsibility onto the external world, as if the ego were giving up its attempts to predict and control, while Stereotypy is an attempt to deal with complex events by means of oversimplified categories. Projectivity is the consistent of another relatively primitive mechanism of defense.

Power and Toughness is another manifestation of ego weakness, involving as it does an over-accent upon the conventionalized aspects of the ego, *e.g.*, the emphasis on "will power"; but this variable, like Destructiveness and Cynicism, and Sex, also expresses with a minimum of indirectness the activity of id tendencies.

However, superego, ego and id can be separated in this fashion only arbitrarily. In actuality, the functioning of any one of these agencies depends at any moment upon the activities of the other two; and everyday behavior, expressed attitudes and values, are not



readily classifiable as manifestations of superego, ego, or id, but are to be understood as expressions of the relationships among these agencies. This, at any rate, was the thinking that went into the F Scale.

. . . . .

Now it is not suggested that the whole authoritarian personality structure is somehow embedded in each F Scale item. But it is fair to say that theory of the kind just indicated lay behind the writing of each item, and that, according to this theory, the F pattern is a structure whose features are so closely interrelated that a clear expression of one permits quite reasonable inferences concerning the activity of the others . . . .

The F Scale works as if the superego, ego, id theory were correct, and there is no doubt but that without this theory the scale would not have been constructed. On the other hand, it cannot be claimed that such results as have been obtained could not be explained as well in others terms.\*

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\*The basic discussion is drawn from R. N. Sanford, "The Approach of *The Authoritarian Personality*," *Psychology of Personality*, J. L. McCary, Editor. New York: Grove Press, 1956. Pp. 269-277.





## DESCRIPTION OF SUBSCALES OF AUTHORITARIANISM SCALE

## F Scale Clusters: Form 45/40

Conventionalism. Rigid adherence to conventional, middle-class values.

1. Obedience and respect for authority are the most important virtues children should learn.
5. A person who has bad manners, habits, and breeding can hardly expect to get along with decent people.
14. If people would talk less and work more, everybody would be a lot better off.
17. The businessman and the manufacturer are much more important to society than the artist and the professor.

Authoritarian Submission. Submissive, uncritical attitudes toward moral authorities of the ingroup.

1. Obedience and respect for authority are the most important virtues children should learn.
3. Science has its place, but there are many important things that can never possibly be understood by the human mind.
4. Every person should have complete faith in some supernatural power whose decisions he obeys without question.
8. Young people get rebellious ideas, but as they grow up they ought to get over them and settle down.
9. What this country needs most, more than laws and political programs, is a few courageous, tireless, devoted leaders in whom the people can put their trust.
18. No sane, normal, decent person could ever think of hurting a close friend or relative.
19. Nobody ever learned anything really important except through suffering.

Authoritarian Aggression. Tendency to be on the lookout for, and to condemn, reject, and punish people who violate conventional values.





5. A person who has bad manners, habits, and breeding can hardly expect to get along with decent people.
6. What the youth needs most is strict discipline, rugged determination, and the will to work and fight for family and country.
7. An insult to our honor should always be punished.
10. Sex crimes, such as rapes and attacks on children, deserve more than mere imprisonment; such criminals ought to be publicly whipped, or worse.
12. There is hardly anything lower than a person who does not feel a great love, gratitude, and respect for his parents.
13. Most of our social problems would be solved if we could somehow get rid of the immoral, crooked, or feeble-minded people.
14. If people would talk less and work more, everybody would be a lot better off.
16. Homosexuals are hardly better than criminals, and ought to be severely punished.

Power and "Toughness". Preoccupation with dominance-submission, strong-weak, leader-follower dimension; identification with power figures; over-emphasis upon the conventionalized attributes of the ego; exaggerated assertion of strength and toughness.

2. No weakness or difficulty can hold us back if we have enough will power.
6. What the youth needs most is strict discipline, rugged determination, and the will to work and fight for family and country.
7. An insult to our honor should always be punished.
9. What this country needs most, more than laws and political programs, is a few courageous, tireless, devoted leaders in whom the people can put their trust.
11. People can be divided into two distinct classes: the weak and the strong.
15. Most people don't realize how much our lives are controlled by plots hatched in secret places.



TABLE LXIII

## RELIABILITY OF THE F SCALE (FORMS 40 AND 45)\*

Group	N	Reliability	Mean	S.D.	Range
Form 40:					
George Washington Univ. Women	132	.84	3.51	.90	1.2 - 5.4
California Service Club Men	63	.94	4.08	1.03	1.8 - 7.0
Middle-Class Men	69	.92	3.69	1.22	1.3 - 6.7
Middle-Class Women	154	.93	3.62	1.26	1.1 - 6.7
Working-Class Men	61	.88	4.19	1.18	1.8 - 6.9
Working-Class Women	53	.97	3.86	1.67	1.3 - 6.6
Los Angeles Men	117	.92	3.68	1.17	1.1 - 6.0
Los Angeles Women	130	.91	3.49	1.13	1.2 - 5.8
Mean <sup>a</sup>	779	.91	3.76	1.20	1.3 - 6.4
Form 45:					
Testing Class Women	59	.89	3.62	.99	1.3 - 5.9
San Quentin Men Prisoners	110	.87	4.73	.86	2.0 - 6.8
Psychiatric Clinic Women	71	.94	3.69	1.30	1.0 - 6.3
Psychiatric Clinic Men	50	.89	3.82	1.01	1.7 - 5.9
Mean	290	.90	3.96	1.04	1.5 - 6.2
Form 40 and Form 45:					
Employment Service Men Veterans	106	.89	3.74	1.04	1.2 - 5.8
Maritime School Men	343	.81	4.06	.77	1.6 - 6.1
Mean <sup>a</sup>	449	.85	3.90	.90	1.4 - 5.9
Overall mean	1518	.90	3.84	1.10	1.4 - 6.3

<sup>a</sup>In obtaining the combined group means, the individual group means were not weighted by N.

\*T. W. Adorno, Else Frenkel Brunswik, Daniel J. Levinson, and R. N. Sanford, *The Authoritarian Personality* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1950), p. 258





## APPENDIX E

### Description of Subscales for Bureaucratic Role Orientation Scale



## APPENDIX E

## DESCRIPTION OF SUBSCALES FOR BUREAUCRATIC ROLE ORIENTATION SCALE

## Orientation Subscales or Indices

Administrative Orientation. A statement should be included in this category when it implies that teachers should try to please the administration and comply with official requirements.

12. Teachers should adjust their teaching techniques to conform to the administration's views of good teaching practice.
16. Typically, the school administration is not any better qualified than is the teacher to judge what is best for education.
20. Teachers should be obedient, respectful, and loyal to the principal.
24. In case of a dispute in the community over whether a controversial book or controversial speaker should be permitted in the school, teachers should look primarily to the judgment of the administration for guidance.
28. Teachers who openly criticize the administration should be encouraged to go elsewhere.
32. A teacher should not allow himself or herself to be influenced by the opinions of those teachers whose ideas do not reflect the thinking of the administration.
36. The only way a teacher can keep out of "hot water" is to follow the wishes of the top administration.
40. In case of a disagreement between the principal and a teacher over a method of instruction in the classroom, the teacher should agree to follow the principal's views.

Loyalty to the Organization. A statement should be included in this category when it implies that teachers should subscribe to a practice because it contributes to the welfare of the school in which they are employed.

13. The school is entitled to expect the whole-hearted loyalty and support of all the members of its teaching staff.
17. A good teacher should put the interests of his school above everything else.



21. In case of doubt whether a particular practice is better than another, the primary test should be what seems best for the overall reputation of the school.
25. A good teacher should put the interests of his department of the school above everything else.

Competence based on Experience. A statement should be included in this category when it implies that on-the-job experience is the basis of teaching competence or is the prerequisite for improving teaching skill.

Pay should be in relation to teaching experience.\*

Often, classroom experience simply gives a teacher the opportunity to practice his mistakes.\*

\*Neither of these items was included in the instrument to be used with the sample of Alberta teachers. The first item describes a well established policy in the province, officially supported by the Alberta Teacher's Association. Discrimination on this item was not likely to occur. The second item was eliminated because of the difficulty of estimating the reliability of a one-item response. This subscale had the lowest reliability of all subscales in Corwin's original study.

Interchangeability of personnel and standardization of work. A statement should be included in this category when it implies that it is the teacher's obligation to fit into the system. (This includes the notion that teachers should be shifted around in a system as the need arises, that education is the responsibility of the system rather than that of the individual teacher, and that progress in courses should be standard throughout the system and province.)

14. Teachers throughout the school system giving instruction in the same subject should follow the same kind of lesson plans.
18. Teachers should teach their courses in such a way that a substitute can take over on a moment's notice without serious interruption.
22. The work of a course should be so planned that every child taking the same course throughout the school system will cover the same material in the same period of time.
26. A good teacher should be able to teach the children what they need to know in a particular course in the time that is made available.





Work described in terms of rules and procedures. A statement should be included in this category when it implies that rules and formulated procedures are important for defining teachers' work roles and responsibilities.

15. A teacher should be required to be completely familiar with the written descriptions of the rules, procedures, manuals, and other standard operating procedures necessary for running his or her own classroom.
19. The school should have a manual of rules and regulations which are to be followed seriously.
23. Rules stating when teachers should arrive and depart from the school building should be strictly enforced.
27. To prevent confusion and friction among the staff, there should be a rule covering almost every problem that might come up at the school.
31. School rules should be adhered to, and when there are exceptional cases the teacher should be expected to check with the administration rather than use his own judgment.
35. There should be definite rules specifying the topics that are not appropriate for discussion in a classroom.
39. When a controversy arises about the interpretation of school rules, a teacher should not "stick his neck out" by taking a definite position.

Public orientation. A statement should be included in this category when it implies that the teacher's primary responsibility and obligation is to the lay taxpayers and parents of the local community.

29. A teacher should not publicly advocate a point of view which differs greatly from the major opinion of the community.
30. Teachers should take into account the opinions of their community in guiding what they say in class and in their choice of teaching materials.
33. A good teacher is one who conforms, in general, to accepted standards in the community.
34. The major criterion of a good school is that it serves the needs of the local community.



37. A teacher should not attempt to discuss in the classroom any controversial issues which may jeopardize the school's public relations.
38. Control over schools by local school boards represents a fundamental and necessary form of democracy in public education.





## APPENDIX F

### Correspondence



10958 - 88 Avenue  
Edmonton, Alberta, Canada  
May 11, 1966

The United States Government Printing Office  
Division of Public Documents  
WASHINGTON 25, D.C.

Gentlemen:                      United States Office of Education  
Re:                      Co-operative Research Project No. 1934

I am a doctoral student in the Faculty of Education of the University of Alberta at Edmonton. For my dissertation I am proposing to undertake an investigation into an aspect of the organizational behavior of teachers. I wish to use as part of the study the "Bureaucratic-Employee Status Orientation Scales" developed by Ronald G. Corwin and his associates at the State University of Ohio, Columbus.

The scales are presented in a 1964 publication of the United States Office of Education, "The Development of an Instrument for Examining Staff Conflicts in the Public Schools," by Ronald G. Corwin.

May I have permission to use a portion of this instrument in the study I expect to be undertaking?

If permission is not available from your office, will you direct me to the authority I should consult? Thank you.

Yours very truly,

Henry N. Anderson



## UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE

DIVISION OF PUBLIC DOCUMENTS

WASHINGTON, D.C. 20402

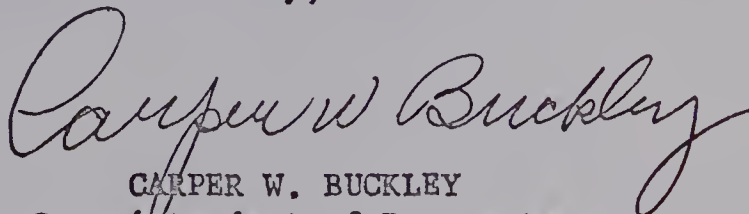
Thank you for your recent communication requesting permission to reprint or quote from a United States Government publication.

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Should you have any further questions regarding the reproduction or subject matter of the publication in which you are interested, you may wish to take the matter up with the originating Government department or agency or its successor.

I hope that this information may be of assistance to you and that we may be of further service whenever possible.

Sincerely,



CARPER W. BUCKLEY  
Superintendent of Documents

Mr. H. N. Anderson  
10958 - 88 Avenue  
Edmonton, Alberta, Canada





10958 - 88 Avenue  
Edmonton, Alberta, Canada  
May 11, 1966

Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc.  
49 East 33rd Street  
NEW YORK, N.Y., 10016

Gentlemen:

I am a doctoral student in the Faculty of Education of the University of Alberta at Edmonton. For my dissertation, I am proposing to undertake an investigation into the organizational behavior of teachers. As part of the study I wish to use certain dimensions of Form 40/45 of the F Scale developed by Adorno and his associates at the University of California, Berkeley.

The F Scale is presented in The Authoritarian Personality, by T. W. Adorno, Else Frenkel-Brunswik, Daniel J. Levinson, and R. Nevitt Sanford. The book was published by Harper & Brothers, 1950.

May I have your authorization to use selected portions of this scale in the study I am undertaking for my dissertation?

Yours very truly,

Henry N. Anderson





Harper & Row, Publishers

INCORPORATED

49 East 33rd Street,  
New York 16, New York

May 25, 1966

Mr. Henry N. Anderson  
10958 - 88 Avenue  
Edmonton, Alberta  
Canada

Dear Mr. Anderson:

Replying to your enclosed request, we are pleased to grant you permission to quote from our publication in your doctoral dissertation, provided acknowledgment is made to the author, title and ourselves as publishers.

If at some future time you decide to publish your thesis, will you kindly write us again?

Sincerely yours,

(Mrs.) Helen Lane  
Permissions

hl:kel





10958 - 88 Avenue  
Edmonton, Alberta  
May 3, 1966

Dr. W. H. Swift. Deputy Minister  
Department of Education  
Government of Alberta  
Edmonton, Alberta

Dear Sir:

Further to our telephone conversation of this morning, following is a brief outline of the request to which you gave approval.

I sought your permission to contact a number of the superintendents of counties and school divisions with respect to a study I am preparing to undertake as part of my graduate work in educational administration at the University of Alberta. I wish to seek the authorization of the superintendents to enter their school systems to contact principals and teachers in selected schools and gain their voluntary participation in the study.

The study itself involves an investigation into the attitudes of principals and teachers toward the role of the teacher as a member of a school organization, and their perceptions of certain types of authority relationships between teachers and principals. Data for the study will be gathered from a questionnaire which respondents could complete in less than half an hour.

Superintendents will not be involved beyond the authorization of the study within their school systems. Assuming such authority is granted, principals and teachers who agree to participate will complete a brief questionnaire.

I will be pleased to give more detailed information as to the nature of the study if such is required.

Yours very truly,

Henry N. Anderson



10958 - 88 Avenue  
Edmonton, Alberta  
May 5, 1966

Dear Sir:

I am a doctoral student in Educational Administration at the University of Alberta. As part of my program of studies I am undertaking an investigation into certain attitudes held by teachers and principals toward the role of the teacher in the school, and toward certain kinds of teacher-principal relationships. I have the permission of the Deputy Minister of Education to contact superintendents of divisions and counties with respect to the conduct of the study in their school systems.

Data for the study will be gathered from a questionnaire which could be completed in less than half an hour by principals and teachers who agree to take part. Individual respondents can be assured of complete anonymity. All analyses will be concerned with group responses, and no school will be identified in the report of the findings.

A sample of schools in counties, school divisions, and selected urban areas was drawn, and the following school(s) in your system has been included:

I would appreciate your permission to contact the principal(s) of the school(s) noted above, and seek participation in the study, which will take place about the end of this month. As a former principal, I realize the time I have chosen is an extremely busy one for teachers and principals, but I trust that the amount of time required to supply the information sought will not be viewed as a serious intrusion.

Would you please let me have your reply to this request by checking your response on the enclosed return-addressed card and forwarding it to me as soon as possible? Thank you.

Yours very truly,

Henry N. Anderson

(Letter to Superintendents of Schools)





10958 - 88 Avenue  
Edmonton, Alberta  
May 11, 1966

Dear Colleague:

I am an Alberta school principal currently pursuing doctoral studies in the Department of Educational Administration at the University of Alberta. For my thesis I am investigating certain attitudes of principals and teachers toward the role of the teacher in the educational system, and their opinions about certain kinds of principal-teacher relationships. Questions asked do not pertain to any particular school, but are concerned with the attitudes and opinions of principals and teachers about a variety of situations.

Your school was selected as part of a sample which includes schools in all parts of the province. I have the permission of the Deputy Minister of Education to proceed with the study, and the permission of the superintendent of your school system to seek your participation in the project.

The data for the study will be gathered from a questionnaire which contains about 70 items, all of which can be answered by a check mark or a figure, and should take less than half an hour to complete. You and your staff can be assured that all replies will be treated in strict confidence. The scoring of all questionnaires and the analyses of all data will be done mechanically. No school will be identified in any way in the report of the findings. Therefore, you can be sure that all replies will remain completely anonymous.

If you and your staff agree to participate in the study, necessary materials will be forwarded to your school before the end of this month. As a school principal, I know that this time of the year is particularly busy for everybody concerned, and that my request represents an intrusion on those who agree to take part. At the same time, I am encouraged to ask for your assistance by the fact that Alberta's principals and teachers have shown strong interest and co-operation in educational research. May I have the participation of you and your staff in the project I have begun?

Will you let me have your reply to this request, please, by checking your response on the enclosed return-addressed card and forwarding it to me as soon as possible? Thank you.

Sincerely,

Henry N. Anderson

(Letter to School Principals)





10958 - 88 Avenue  
Edmonton, Alberta  
May 18, 1966

I am an Alberta school principal pursuing doctoral studies in the Department of Educational Administration at the University of Alberta. At this point I am collecting data to be used in a study to be included in a thesis I am preparing, and I am asking for the assistance of principals and teachers in various schools throughout Alberta.

Currently about fifty principals and over a thousand teachers in their respective schools have consented to complete questionnaires such as the one included in this letter. In order to increase the number of principals represented in the survey, a random sample of fifty principals of schools not included in the survey was drawn. Your name was chosen in this way. Your staff is not being asked to take part.

As an examination of the questionnaire will indicate, the study is concerned with a survey of the attitudes and opinions of teachers and principals on a number of matters, most of them directly related to the role of the teacher in the public education system. The questionnaire itself will likely take less than half an hour to complete.

You are assured of complete anonymity in your responses, since only group analyses will be involved, and all work will be done by IBM card sorter and computer. No individual or school will be identified in any way in the study.

Are you willing to take half an hour or so within the next few days to complete and return the questionnaire? I would very much appreciate your assistance.

If you feel that you cannot take the time, or frankly do not care to be involved in the survey, will you simply return the blank questionnaire in envelope provided?

Sincerely,

Henry N. Anderson

(Letter to Principals in  
sub-sample)



10958 - 88 Avenue  
Edmonton, Alberta  
May , 1966

Thank you for your prompt reply to my request for assistance in the research project I have underway. I appreciate your willingness to participate in the survey involved.

The questionnaires for you and your staff are being mailed today under separate cover.

While the questionnaires are being shipped to the school in your name, you may prefer to have a staff member act as the agent for distributing them among the teachers, and be the person responsible for receiving the sealed envelopes when the questionnaires have been completed.

It would be greatly appreciated if all questionnaires would be completed and returned within a week or ten days. Perhaps a date for completion might be set by the person responsible for receiving the envelopes, and then he or she should mail to me the questionnaires which have been turned in by that date. It is hoped that there will be a good cross section of each staff represented in the returns, so that the information gathered for the study will in fact be a cross section of the opinions of teachers and principals from all parts of the province.

You will note that your school's name appears as the return address on the envelope supplied for mailing the completed questionnaires. This information is used only for checking returns against the list of schools in the total sample. No school is named to any person involved in the coding of responses on IBM cards, nor will such information appear anywhere on any report of the findings. All replies will remain completely anonymous.

Sincerely,

Henry N. Anderson

(Letter to Principals accepting  
participation in the study)





10958 - 88 Avenue  
Edmonton, Alberta  
June , 1966

Thank you very much for your promptness in returning the questionnaires completed by you and your staff as part of the survey of attitudes I have been carrying out. Your assistance is very much appreciated.

The principals and staffs of nearly fifty schools (almost 90% of those contacted) in all parts of Alberta, numbering over a thousand educators in all, consented to take part in the survey. Such a response is very impressive, particularly in view of the lateness in the school year when the project was launched. This level of support is typical of the co-operation which Alberta's educators have given to research projects of all types in recent years.

I hope that you and your staff found the questionnaire interesting to work at, if perhaps unusual in some respects, and not a serious intrusion on your time. A large proportion of principals and teachers took time to comment on the situations presented in one section of the questionnaire, and this information will be very useful in assisting in interpreting the data gathered. It is my hope that the study will provide some new information on authority relationships in school organizations, and perhaps some added insights into the nature of authority itself.

Will you convey to your staff, too, my thanks for their co-operation?

Sincerely,

Henry N. Anderson

(Letter to Principals  
acknowledging return  
of questionnaires)



10958 - 88 Avenue  
Edmonton, Alberta  
June 14, 1966

Dear

I received today your reply to my recent request for your assistance in the research project I have under way. I appreciate the willingness of you and your staff to take part, especially at a time when the pressures of examinations and other year-end activities are very demanding at every school.

I would have liked to include your school in the survey, but I had previously set mid-June as the cut-off date for data collection. Questionnaires were mailed only to those schools which replied by the end of May.

Altogether, the principals and staffs of nearly fifty schools in every part of Alberta consented to take part in the survey. This number is considerably in excess of the sample size deemed adequate for the purposes of the study. This excellent response is typical of the kind of support which schools such as yours have shown towards educational research in recent years.

As you know, graduate students engaged in research projects make frequent requests upon the schools of this province for information of various kinds. I trust that you and your staff will extend to other graduate students the courtesy and co-operation which you showed me, when you are contacted again for some future study.

Sincerely,

Henry N. Anderson

(Letter to Principals replying  
too late to be included in the  
study)



## APPENDIX G

### The Instrument Used for the Study





# A SURVEY OF ATTITUDES OF TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS

---

TO ALL TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS

I am an Alberta school principal doing graduate work in the Department of Educational Administration at the University of Alberta. As part of my studies I am investigating certain attitudes of teachers and principals toward the role of the teacher in the educational system, and their opinions about a number of matters, including certain kinds of teacher-principal relationships.

For purposes of this study, a sample of Alberta schools in counties, school divisions, and school districts was drawn. Your school was one of those chosen. I would appreciate your participating in the study by completing the following questionnaire.

Your name should not appear anywhere on the questionnaire. Your school will not be identified in any way in the report of the findings. All scoring and analysis will be carried out mechanically. Therefore, you are assured that all replies will remain completely anonymous.

Please place the completed questionnaire in the envelope provided, and return it sealed to the staff member who has been designated to receive the envelopes, and that person will forward all questionnaires from your school to me.

I would be grateful if you would take time to complete and return the questionnaire within the next week. May I extend my thanks in anticipation of your co-operation?

Sincerely,

Henry N. Anderson



---

## SECTION A: PERSONAL DATA

---

Please check (✓) the response to each item which gives the correct information about you.

1. Sex:
  - ☐ 1. Male
  - ☐ 2. Female
2. Marital Status:
  - ☐ 1. Married
  - ☐ 2. Single
  - ☐ 3. Other
3. Total years of teaching experience as of June 30, 1966. (Include administrative experience.):
  - ☐ 1. 1 year
  - ☐ 2. 2 years
  - ☐ 3. 3 years
  - ☐ 4. 4 - 5 years
  - ☐ 5. 6 - 8 years
  - ☐ 6. 9 - 14 years
  - ☐ 7. 15 - 20 years
  - ☐ 8. 21 years or more
4. Present position:
  - ☐ 1. Regular classroom teacher
  - ☐ 2. Department head teaching more than half-time
  - ☐ 3. Department head teaching half-time or less
  - ☐ 4. Vice-principal teaching half-time or less
  - ☐ 5. Vice-principal teaching more than half-time
  - ☐ 6. Principal teaching more than half-time
  - ☐ 7. Principal teaching half-time or less
  - ☐ 8. Other (please specify)
5. Number of years in your present school (as of June 30, 1966):
  - ☐ 1. 1 year
  - ☐ 2. 2 years
  - ☐ 3. 3 years
  - ☐ 4. 4 - 5 years
  - ☐ 5. 6 - 8 years
  - ☐ 6. 9 - 14 years
  - ☐ 7. 15 - 20 years
  - ☐ 8. 21 years or more
6. Teaching level (primary responsibility):
  - ☐ 1. Elementary
  - ☐ 2. Junior High
  - ☐ 3. High School
  - ☐ 4. Non-teaching position
7. Years of teacher education on which your salary is based:
  - ☐ 1. 1 year or less
  - ☐ 2. 1.1 - 1.9 years
  - ☐ 3. 2.0 - 2.9 years
  - ☐ 4. 3.0 - 3.9 years
  - ☐ 5. 4.0 - 4.9 years
  - ☐ 6. 5.0 - 5.9 years
  - ☐ 7. 6.0 years or more
8. Type of first academic and/or professional preparation beyond high school:
  - ☐ 1. Normal school or teachers' college
  - ☐ 2. Faculty of Education in a University
  - ☐ 3. University faculty other than Education
  - ☐ 4. Other
9. Type of university preparation:
  - ☐ 1. My first degree was a B.Ed. or its equivalent (e.g., B.A. in Education)
  - ☐ 2. My first degree was not in Education
  - ☐ 3. I do not hold a university degree
10. Career Satisfaction:
 

Taking into account all of the factors which enter into your task, how satisfied are you with teaching as a career?

  - ☐ 1. very well satisfied
  - ☐ 2. fairly well satisfied
  - ☐ 3. fairly dissatisfied
  - ☐ 4. very much dissatisfied

## 11. Career plans

In your future professional work, in which of these general areas would you prefer to spend the greater portion of your time and energy?

- ☐ 1. TEACHING: I would prefer to retain the position I now have; or, assume a similar position in the same or different school system at the same or different grade level; or, become a subject specialist. I would prefer a position which has mainly classroom and teaching responsibilities.
- ☐ 2. ADMINISTRATION: I would prefer to retain the administrative position which I now have; or assume a position in this or another school system as a department head, vice-principal, specialist supervisor, principal, superintendent, or other system administrator. I would prefer a position which has mainly organizational responsibilities.
- ☐ 3. OTHER: I would prefer to retain the non-teaching position I now have; or, assume a position which involves mainly services such as library, counselling, research, or curriculum supervision and development. I would prefer a position which has mainly supportive and non-teaching responsibilities.
- ☐ 4. NONE: I do not intend to remain in the profession beyond the current year.

## SECTION B: THE TEACHER'S ROLE

The following section is designed to measure teachers' attitudes toward their role in the school and in the educational system generally.

All teachers are asked to reply to this section, and in addition, all principals are asked to give their opinions as to what they feel the teacher's role should be.

There are five possible answers to each statement:

SA — Strongly Agree

A — Agree

U — Undecided

D — Disagree

SD — Strongly Disagree

The term administration as it is used in this questionnaire refers to various persons such as principals, supervisors, superintendents, etc., or to regulations of the school board.

For each statement, circle the answer which indicates your personal attitude towards that statement.

- |   |    |   |   |   |    |
|---|----|---|---|---|----|
| 12. Teachers should adjust their teaching techniques to conform to the administration's views of good educational practice.   | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 13. The school is entitled to expect the whole-hearted loyalty and support of all members of its teaching staff.  | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 14. Teachers throughout the school system giving instruction in the same subject should follow the same kind of lesson plans.   | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 15. A teacher should be required to be completely familiar with the written descriptions of the rules, procedures, manuals, and other standard operating procedures necessary for running his or her own classroom. | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 16. Typically, the school administration is not any better qualified than is the teacher to judge what is best for education.   | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 17. A good teacher should put the interests of his school above almost everything else.   | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 18. Teachers should teach their courses in such a way that a substitute can take over at a moment's notice without serious interruption.  | SA | A | U | D | SD |



19. The school should have a manual of rules and regulations which are to be followed seriously.	SA	A	U	D	SD
20. Teachers should be obedient, respectful, and loyal to the principal.	SA	A	U	D	SD
21. In case of doubt whether a particular practice is better than another, the primary test for teachers to use should be what seems best for the over-all reputation of the school.	SA	A	U	D	SD
22. The work of every course should be so planned that every child taking the same kind of course throughout the school system will cover the same material in the same period of time.	SA	A	U	D	SD
23. Rules stating when teachers should arrive at and depart from the school building should be strictly enforced.	SA	A	U	D	SD
24. In case of a dispute in the community over whether a controversial book or a controversial speaker should be permitted in the school, teachers should look primarily to the judgment of the administration for guidance.	SA	A	U	D	SD
25. A good teacher should put the interests of his own department of the school above almost everything else.	SA	A	U	D	SD
26. A good teacher is one who is able to cover the course and teach the children what they need to know in the time that is made available.	SA	A	U	D	SD
27. To prevent confusion and friction among staff members, there should be a rule covering almost every problem that might come up at the school.	SA	A	U	D	SD
28. Teachers who criticize the administration of the school should be encouraged to go elsewhere.	SA	A	U	D	SD
29. Teachers should not publicly advocate a point of view which differs greatly from the majority opinion of the community.	SA	A	U	D	SD
30. Teachers should take into account the opinions of their community in guiding what they say in class and in their choice of teaching materials.	SA	A	U	D	SD
31. School rules should be adhered to, and when there are exceptional cases, the teacher should be expected to check with the administration rather than use his own judgment.	SA	A	U	D	SD
32. A teacher should not allow himself or herself to be influenced by the opinions of those teachers whose ideas do not generally reflect the thinking of the administration.	SA	A	U	D	SD
33. A good teacher is one who conforms, in general, to the accepted standards of his community.	SA	A	U	D	SD
34. The major criterion of a good school is that it serves the needs of the local community.	SA	A	U	D	SD
35. There should be definite rules laid down for teachers specifying the topics that are not appropriate for discussion in a classroom.	SA	A	U	D	SD
36. The only way a teacher can keep out of "hot water" is to follow the wishes of the top administration.	SA	A	U	D	SD

- |  |    |   |   |   |    |
|--|----|---|---|---|----|
| 37. A teacher should not attempt to discuss in the classroom any controversial issues which may jeopardize the school's public relations.                                  | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 38. Control over schools by locally elected school boards represents a fundamental and necessary form of democracy in public education.                                    | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 39. When a controversy arises about the interpretation of school rules, a teacher should not "stick his neck out" by taking a definite position.                           | SA | A | U | D | SD |
| 40. In case of a disagreement between the principal and a teacher over a method of instruction in the classroom, the teacher should agree to follow the principal's views. | SA | A | U | D | SD |

### SECTION C: DATA ON THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SCHOOL

#### THIS SECTION IS TO BE COMPLETED BY PRINCIPALS ONLY

41. What is your total experience as a school principal as of June 30, 1966?

- ☐ 1. 1 year  
☐ 2. 2 years  
☐ 3. 3 years  
☐ 4. 4 - 5 years  
☐ 5. 6 - 8 years  
☐ 6. 9 - 11 years  
☐ 7. 12 - 15 years  
☐ 8. 16 - 20 years  
☐ 9. 21 years or more

42. How long have you been principal of your present school?

- ☐ 1. 1 year  
☐ 2. 2 years  
☐ 3. 3 years  
☐ 4. 4 - 5 years  
☐ 5. 6 - 8 years  
☐ 6. 9 - 11 years  
☐ 7. 12 - 15 years  
☐ 8. 16 - 20 years  
☐ 9. 21 years or more

43. What is the administrative organization of your school?

- ☐ 1. Elementary  
☐ 2. Elementary - Junior High  
☐ 3. Junior High  
☐ 4. Junior-Senior High  
☐ 5. High School  
☐ 6. Grades 1 - 12  
☐ 7. Other (please specify)

44. What is the number and distribution of full-time staff members? (Do not include yourself).

	Male	Female
Elementary	_____	_____
Junior High	_____	_____
Senior High	_____	_____
Others	_____	_____

Do not write in this space.  
(Reserved for computer analysis)

44 _____	45 _____	46 _____	47 _____
48 _____	49 _____	50 _____	51 _____
52 _____	53 _____	54 _____	55 _____
56 _____	57 _____	58 _____	59 _____

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### SECTION D: TEACHER OPINION

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This section is to be completed by all teachers and administrators. The section contains statements of a general nature with which some people agree and others disagree. Mark each statement in the space provided according to the extent of your agreement or disagreement, by using the following scale:

+1 means slight support or agreement

– 1 means slight opposition or disagreement

+2 means moderate support or agreement

– 2 means moderate opposition or disagreement

+3 means strong support or agreement

– 3 means strong opposition or disagreement

There are a printers error

PLACE YOUR RESPONSE IN

0 means you are undecided about the statement

OF THE STATEMENT

WHICH IT REFERS.

- ☐ 1. Obedience and respect for authority are the most important virtues children should learn.
- ☐ 2. No weakness of difficulty can hold us back if we have enough will or power.
- ☐ 3. Science has its place, but there are many important things that can never possibly be understood by the human mind.
- ☐ 4. Every person should have complete faith in some supernatural power whose decisions he obeys without question.
- ☐ 5. A person who has bad manners, habits, and breeding can hardly expect to get along with decent people.
- ☐ 6. What the youth needs most is strict discipline, rugged determination, and the will to work and fight for family and country.
- ☐ 7. An insult to our honor should always be punished.
- ☐ 8. Young people get rebellious ideas, but as they grow up they ought to get over them and settle down.
- ☐ 9. What this country needs most, more than laws and political programs, is a few courageous, tireless, devoted leaders in whom the people can put their trust.
- ☐ 10. Sex crimes, such as rapes and attacks on children, deserve more than mere imprisonment; such criminals ought to be publicly whipped or worse.
- ☐ 11. People can generally be divided into two classes: the strong, and the weak.
- ☐ 12. There is hardly anything lower than a person who does not feel a great love, gratitude, and respect for his parents.
- ☐ 13. Most of our social problems would be solved if we could somehow get rid of the immoral, crooked, or feeble-minded people.
- ☐ 14. If people would talk less and work more, everybody would be a lot better off.
- ☐ 15. Most people don't realize how much our lives are controlled by plots hatched in secret places.
- ☐ 16. Homosexuals are hardly better than criminals, and ought to be severely punished.
- ☐ 17. The businessman and the manufacturer are much more important to society than are the artist and the professor.
- ☐ 18. No sane, moral, decent person could ever think of hurting a close friend or relative.
- ☐ 19. Nobody ever learned anything really important except through suffering.

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## SECTION E : TEACHER – PRINCIPAL RELATIONSHIPS

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This section is designed to measure attitudes towards certain kinds of teacher principal relationships. The incidents which follow have been reported in The ATA Magazine over the past five years through letters to the Association which have described differences between teachers and principals about what may be expected of a teacher as a member of a school staff.

For each of the incidents presented you are asked (a) to evaluate the action taken by the principal, and (b) to indicate what you think you would do (not necessarily what you would prefer to do) if you were in the same situation, having regard for the consequences which might follow from either course of action from which you are to choose.

**PRINCIPALS :** For part (b), give your answer in terms of what you think teachers should do in each instance, i.e., comply or not comply.

Space is provided for a brief comment if you wish to make one.

A. At a staff meeting early in the school year, the principal requested that each teacher serve as a sponsor for at least one of the student extra-curricular activities during the school year. He insisted that the rule should apply equally to every staff member, irrespective of the background, preparation, or special interests of teachers in taking part in such activities.

20. (a) In your opinion, how justified is the principal in making this request of the staff?

- ☐ 1. He has every right
- ☐ 2. He has some right
- ☐ 3. He has little if any right
- ☐ 4. He has absolutely no right

} to make such a request

21. (b) If you were a member of the staff of the school in which this incident occurred, and if the request were directed to you, what do you think you would do?

- ☐ 1. I would comply
- ☐ 2. I would probably not comply

} with the principal's request

**COMMENT :**

B. A principal believed that the instructional methods being used by a teacher on the staff were ineffective and he so informed the teacher. The teacher maintained that the methods being used produced entirely satisfactory results. The principal insisted that a change in methods was necessary.

22. (a) In your opinion, how justified is the principal in making such a request of a teacher?

- ☐ 1. He has every right
- ☐ 2. He has some right
- ☐ 3. He has little if any right
- ☐ 4. He has absolutely no right

} to make such a request



23. (b) If you were the teacher in this situation, and if the principal requested you to change your teaching methods, what do you think you would do?

- ☐ 1. I would probably comply  
☐ 2. I would probably not comply
- } with the principal's request

**COMMENT :**

- C. A principal informed a teacher that the parents of a certain pupil strongly disapproved of the **disciplin-**ary measures used by the teacher. The principal requested the teacher to transfer the pupil to another classroom at the same grade level.

24. (a) In your opinion, how justified is the principal in making such a request of a teacher?

- ☐ 1. He has every right  
☐ 2. He has some right  
☐ 3. He has little if any right  
☐ 4. He has absolutely no right
- } to make such a request

25. (b) If you were the teacher in this situation, and if the principal requested you to transfer a pupil under these circumstances, what do you think you would do?

- ☐ 1. I would probably comply  
☐ 2. I would probably not comply
- } with the principal's request

**COMMENT :**

- D. A principal informed all staff members that in the interests of efficient supervision of the school, and in order to make teacher consultations easier, he was requesting all teachers to arrive at school at least a half hour before school opening, and to remain in the building at least a half hour after the last class was dismissed.

26. (a) In your opinion, how justified is the principal in making this request of the staff?

- ☐ 1. He has every right  
☐ 2. He has some right  
☐ 3. He has little if any right  
☐ 4. He has absolutely no right
- } to make such a request

27. If you were a member of the staff of the school in which this incident occurred, and if the request were directed to you, what do you think you would do?

- ☐ 1. I would probably comply  
☐ 2. I would probably not comply
- } with the principal's request

**COMMENT :**



E. A principal requested all staff members to file with him for his inspection a copy of all term and final examinations before the teachers administered them to any class.

28. (a) In your opinion, how justified is the principal in making this request of the staff?

- ☐ 1. He has every right
- ☐ 2. He has some right
- ☐ 3. He has little if any right
- ☐ 4. He has absolutely no right

} to make such a request

29. (b) If you were the teacher on the staff of the school in which this incident occurred, and if the request were directed to you, what do you think you would do?

- ☐ 1. I would probably comply
- ☐ 2. I would probably not comply

} with the principal's request

**COMMENT :**

F. At the end of the school year, a principal requested all teachers to present for his approval all final marks and promotion lists prepared for all pupils. The principal said he reserved the right to change any teacher's marks or grade assignments in accordance with the over-all achievement of the school.

30. (a) In your opinion, how justified is the principal in making this request of the staff?

- ☐ 1. He has every right
- ☐ 2. He has some right
- ☐ 3. He has little if any right
- ☐ 4. He has absolutely no right

} to make such a request

31. (b) If you were a member of the staff of the school in which this incident occurred, and if the request were directed to you, what do you think you would do?

- ☐ 1. I would probably comply
- ☐ 2. I would probably not comply

} with the principal's request

**COMMENT :**













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